THE ONTARIO PUBLIC SCHOOL HISTORY OF ENGLAND

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GEORGE V, KING OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND
AND THE BRITISH DOMINIONS BEYOND THE SEAS

ONTARIO
PUBLIC SCHOOL
HISTORY OF ENGLAND

AUTHORIZED BY
THE MINISTER OF EDUCATION FOR ONTARIO

FOR USE IN
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HISTORY OF ENGLAND

CHAPTER I

THE ROMANS IN BRITAIN

55 B. C. - 410 A. D.

1. **The Romans first hear of Britain.**—About half a century before the birth of Christ, a great Roman general named Julius Cæsar set out to subdue the various tribes living in the country then called Gaul, and now called France. The people nearest to Dover Strait resisted him longest, and he concluded that some one must be helping them. Who could it be? The tribes on three sides of them would not dare to oppose him, and on the fourth side was the ocean. At last Cæsar conquered these people and went through their land to the sea. On the north-west there were dim, white cliffs far out on the horizon. As he stood looking at them, he remembered the aid that had come to his foes from some mysterious source. "That is it," he said to himself, "and if I am to hold the land that I have won, I must conquer that country afar off in the ocean."

2. **Cæsar attempts to learn about Britain.**—Probably all that Cæsar knew about the country was that it was thought to be an island, that it was called Britain, and that somewhere in Britain there were mines of tin. He questioned the people whom he had subdued, but they said that they knew nothing of it, except that merchants sometimes went back and forth between the two countries. Then Cæsar sent for the merchants and questioned them. They also could give him no information, as they went only to the coast of Britain, and they knew nothing at all about what was inland. Cæsar

saw that if he wished to learn anything about this strange land with the white cliffs, he must find it out for himself; so he sent one of his officers across Dover Strait in a warship to gain what information he could about the country. This officer did not think it was wise to attempt to land and trust himself among the natives; and therefore, when he came back, he had little news to bring to his commander.

3. **Cæsar's first invasion of Britain, 55 B.C.**—Cæsar then determined to go to the unknown country to see in person what kind of place it was, and to conquer the people who had been helping his foes. One night, just after midnight, he set sail with eight or ten thousand men, and by the middle of the next forenoon they were close to the coast of Britain, and ready to land. Landing was not so easy, however, as he thought it would be, for his ships were so large that they could not go where the water was shallow; hence the soldiers had to jump out into the deep water and wade ashore through the surf as best they could. This would have been hard enough to do in any case, for they wore very heavy armour; but, worst of all, there were great numbers of men on the shore ready to fight. Some of them were in war-chariots, some were on horseback, and some were on foot. They were armed with darts and battle-axes, and clubs and bows and great stones. It is no wonder that even the brave Roman soldiers hesitated.

JULIUS CÆSAR

At last the standard-bearer of Cæsar's favourite legion sprang overboard and called out, "Follow me, soldiers, unless you want to give up your eagle!" The soldiers, fearing the disgrace of losing their standard, leaped out into the deep water, and made their way to the shore. As soon as they had a firm footing on dry ground, they put the Britons to flight.

The Britons were so much impressed by the bravery of the Romans that, as soon as they had rallied after their flight, they sent messengers to ask for peace. This Cæsar was ready to grant; he demanded, however, as a pledge for their good behaviour in the future, that some of their chiefs should remain in his camp. Some hostages were given at once, but the Britons explained that others were in distant parts of the country, and that it would take a few days to bring them.

In the meantime, misfortunes came upon the Romans. The ships containing the cavalry were driven back by a storm; some of the vessels on the shore were wrecked by the high tides; and the Britons attacked and killed some of the soldiers sent out to collect food. A large force of Britons also gathered near the Roman camp. Cæsar at once attacked them, and pursued them to one of their villages, which he burned. The Britons again sent messengers asking for peace. Cæsar again granted it, but ordered them to give twice as many hostages as before, and to send them to him on the continent. He did not wish to remain longer, for his ships were not in good condition and he feared the autumnal storms. He did not wait to receive them, however, but returned hastily to Gaul. He had done little during his three weeks' stay in Britain, and had not advanced more than a mile from the shore.

4. **Cæsar's second invasion, 54 B.C.**—During the winter Cæsar gathered a large force of soldiers, and in July of the following year went sailing towards the coast of Britain with eight hundred ships, carrying twenty-five thousand foot-soldiers and two thousand horsemen. When the Britons saw this great fleet approaching, they fled to the woods in terror. Cæsar's men landed and pursued them to a fort in which they had taken refuge. This was a small woodland surrounded by a wall of earth and a deep ditch. After a severe struggle, the fort was captured.

The Britons were led by a famous chief, Caswallon, or, as the Romans called him, Cassivelaunus. As Cæsar's forces advanced, the Britons slowly withdrew, keeping up a running fight with their horsemen and charioteers. Finding that they suffered great loss and that they were unable to stop the advance of the Romans, many of the Britons gave up the struggle and dispersed. But Cassivelaunus with about four thousand charioteers kept up the fight. With his swiftly moving troops he made sallies from the woods and harassed Cæsar's line of march. At last, after Cæsar had attacked his stronghold and captured it with a great number of cattle, the chief wealth of the tribe, the British chieftain surrendered. He gave a large number of hostages, promised to pay tribute every year, and not to harm the tribes that had previously made friends with Cæsar. As winter was now approaching, Cæsar returned to Gaul, thinking that there was no further danger of the Britons sending help to their friends across the Channel.

5. **Manners and customs of the Britons.**—Not long after Cæsar invaded Britain, he wrote a book about his campaigns, and of course he described this far-away land and its strange inhabitants. "The people are numerous," he says, "beyond all counting, and very numerous also their houses; the number of their cattle is great. They use gold or bars of iron of a fixed weight for money. Tin is found in the inland parts; iron near the sea-coast, but the quantity of this is but small." Grain was grown somewhat extensively in the south; farther north the inhabitants did not sow grain, but lived on their flocks and herds and on the wild animals they killed.

Most of the men whom Cæsar fought with were tall, with blue eyes and long, light hair. They wore short cloaks of skins, and stained their bodies with a deep blue dye. They were fond of bright colours and of ornaments, such as beads, bracelets, and necklaces, some of which were exceedingly pretty. Most of their houses were round. When a man wished to build one, he first marked out on the ground the size he meant the house to be; then he set down poles close together, and made them firm by weaving in pliant twigs. For the roof he fastened other poles to the tops of the first and brought them together in a point. When he meant his house to be especially handsome, he peeled the poles.

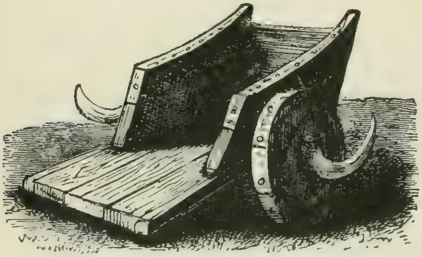
There were no windows, and the only way for the smoke to escape was through a little hole in the point of the roof.

The Britons were very skilful with their hands, particularly in the weaving of wicker-work. They made very simple boats by hollowing out logs, and very light ones by covering wicker-work with the skins of wild beasts; but they also understood how to build boats of planks fastened together by metal nails.

But what astonished Cæsar most was the way the Britons fought, and their daring and courage in battle. Each Briton had a long sword and a dagger, made of copper or bronze, and carried a small round shield of wicker-work covered with raw hide. Many of them fought from chariots, which they managed very skilfully. These chariots were broad, low, two-wheeled carts, which would carry a driver and several warriors. They had long, hooked scythes fastened to the axles, and extending out on both sides. The horses were so well trained that they could be driven at furious speed over the roughest ground and into the ranks of the enemy, cutting down everything that came near them. The warriors would then leap down and fight on foot, while the chariot was driven off to one side. If they were getting

WICKERWORK CORACLES OF THE EARLY BRITONS the worst of the fight they would run to the chariot and drive away again as rapidly as they came. The Britons, however, were lacking in steady discipline, as they were led by separate chiefs who were often at war with one another, and this frequently prevented them from showing a united front to the enemy.

6. **The religion of the Britons.**—The religion of the Britons was called Druidism. It was a fierce, strange belief. Part of it was exceedingly cruel; for the priests, or Druids, taught the people to make wicker-work enclosures outlining the shape of some animal, and in these enclosures to offer up sacrifices of human beings. For this purpose they took criminals, when there were any, but if the supply of criminals failed, they then took innocent people.


British War Chariot

Part of their religion was very superstitious; they worshipped serpents, streams, and trees, especially the oak tree. When an oak was found with a mistletoe growing on it, they were overjoyed. They marched to the tree in a procession, the Druids, with their long beards and trailing robes, going first. The other people followed, and when they came to the oak tree, they circled around it, the common people farthest off; for an oak that bore a mistletoe was too holy for any one but a priest to touch. Then the Druids sacrificed two white bulls; and after much chanting and many strange ceremonies, one of the priests cut away the plant with a golden knife.

At Stonehenge, on Salisbury Plain, in southern England, are massive stones arranged in two circles, one within the other. It is thought that these stones may be the remains of a Druid temple.

7. **The third Roman invasion.**—When Cæsar returned to

Rome there was great rejoicing among the Romans over his successful wars in Gaul and Britain, and a grand thanksgiving of twenty days was ordered. Cæsar, however, did not return to Britain, and eleven years later he was assassinated. A great civil war arose after his death, which ended in making Rome an empire. The Romans were so busy with these and other matters at home, that it was nearly a century before they went again to Britain.

In 43 A.D. the Emperor Claudius set about the conquest of Britain in earnest. Plautius, one of his generals, with an army of forty thousand men, was sent to subdue the island. At this time Caradoc, or Caractacus, the great-grandson of Cassivelaunus, was the ruling chief. After nine years of desperate fighting, Caractacus was made prisoner, taken to Rome, and led in chains through the streets. As he saw the splendid buildings and the wealth of the capital city of the world, he exclaimed, "Strange that they who have such splendid possessions, should envy us our poor huts!" The emperor was so pleased with the proud bearing of the captive that he set him at liberty, but he would not allow him to return to his native land.

The Romans now proceeded to build fortified camps, which soon grew into cities, and they settled in Britain as a conquered country. They spared the Britons who made submission, but gave them no part in the government. In fact, the Britons were often little better than the slaves of their Roman masters. So grievous, indeed, did the yoke become, that the Druids encouraged the young men to rebel and to try to win back their freedom. For this advice, the Roman general Suetonius took a terrible revenge. He landed on the island of Anglesey, surprised the Druids in their sacred grove, and put most of them to the sword. But hardly had he returned from this expedition, when he was called upon to face a general uprising of the Britons under Boadicea, the queen of the Iceni. The queen had been robbed of her property, and both she and her daughters had been shamefully scourged and abused by the Romans. She roused the Britons by telling the story of her wrongs, and, gathering an army, attacked London and other Roman colonies. In a few days seventy thousand Romans were slain. None were spared, but men, women, and children alike fell beneath the fury of the Britons.

With ten thousand men Suetonius was forced, in 62, to face an army of one hundred and twenty thousand Britons led by Boadicea. The Roman general had chosen his own ground for the battle, and soon the discipline and superior arms of the Romans gave them the advantage. The Britons turned and fled in confusion. In the battle and the pursuit that followed, over eighty thousand of them were slain. Boadicea poisoned herself. The cause of the Britons was lost forever.

8. **Military results of the Roman conquest.**—The insurrection of the Britons had been caused by Roman misrule, and in 78 Agricola was sent to the island as governor, with the object of restoring peace. He knew that a lasting peace must rest on good government, and, although he extended the Roman power by conquering more of the island, yet he ruled justly and well. His chief task was to secure the land against the savage tribes on the border, especially the Picts of Scotland and the Scots from Ireland. To keep off the northern invaders, he built a chain of forts connecting the Clyde and the Forth in Scotland. The Emperor Hadrian visited Britain in 121, and, fearing that the Picts would break through Agricola's chain of forts, built a wall of earth between the Solway and the Tyne as a second line of defence. This was strengthened later by a wall of solid masonry about eight feet wide and fifteen feet high, built just north

ROMAN WALLS

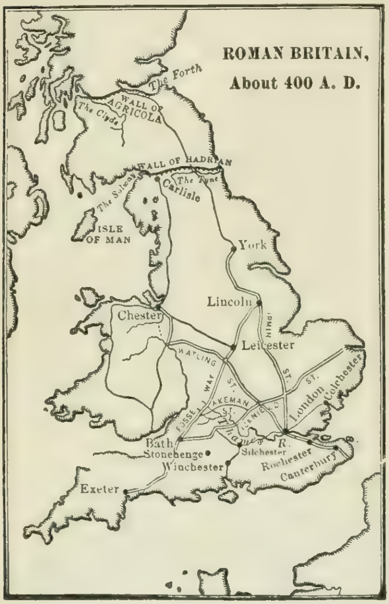
of the earthen wall. This famous wall, parts of which still exist, was seventy-three miles in length. On it there were stone strongholds and watch-towers, and once in every four miles there was a fort where soldiers were always stationed. Forty years later, under the Emperor Antoninus, another wall, of earth, was thrown up on the line of Agricola's forts.

In order to move their armies rapidly from place to place, the Romans built many excellent roads, one extending the whole length of Hadrian's wall, and others connecting the various colonies and military camps. During the third century of Roman rule the eastern shore was troubled more and more by the attacks of the Saxons, daring pirates who came over the sea to plunder. To guard against these attacks, a watch-tower and fort were built at every convenient landing, and placed under the command of a special officer who had the title "Count of the Saxon Shore."

9. **Progress of Britain under the Romans.**—When the Romans first settled in Britain, they found the country a land of swamp and forest, with occasional stretches of open ground. Small clearings were scattered through these forests, where miserable villages were built, and a little grain cultivated. Cattle, hides, tin, slaves, a small amount of grain, and a few dusky pearls were the only exports. But little by little the Romans changed the appearance of the country. Many swamps were drained, and the cultivation of new grains, vegetables and fruits was extended, until Britain gained the proud title of the "Granary of the North."

The great Roman military camps, nearly fifty in all, became prosperous towns. Near these military camps Romans of high rank built large, handsome houses. The walls were beautifully painted, and the floors were paved with marble of many colours. Around these houses were spacious gardens, adorned with statues, and rich in all kinds of fruit that could be made to grow on the island. Even to-day, in digging in different parts of England, people often find pieces of statuary and vases, and ornaments of gold or of silver, that were once used to beautify the British homes of the Romans.

But although the poor Britons saw their country growing rich and prosperous, and although they learned much that was useful, yet for the most part they were harshly treated. To support their conquerors in luxury they were obliged to pay enormous taxes. They built the roads, drained the swamps and worked the mines. Thousands of them were compelled to enter the army, and were then removed to the remotest frontiers to fight the battles of the Roman empire. In no case might a Briton become a Roman soldier in his own country, but he might fight for Rome in Asia or Africa, while the imperial army in Britain contained Moors, Greeks, and Germans. Some few, of course, who were the sons of chiefs, learned the Roman language and became officers in the army or rose to positions of importance in civil life.



The Britons as a whole, however, remained untouched by the influence of Roman civilization. They continued to live in their own villages, and retained, for the most part, their ancient customs. Their language, too, remained the same. During the later years of Roman rule, Christianity spread to some extent among the Britons. It was first brought to the island probably by soldiers and merchants who had been converted in Rome. But it is probable that the greater number of the Christians were to be found in the towns, and that the people in the villages and in the interior of the country continued to worship the gods of their fathers.

10. **The Romans abandon Britain.**—If the Romans could have given all their attention to Britain, they would have been able to conquer the whole island, but the great Roman empire was slowly tottering to its fall. The barbarian tribes of the north and east were pressing nearer and nearer to the city, and the Romans must defend their own country. Every year fewer Romans came to Britain, and every year some of the conquerors had to return to Italy. At last, in 410, soldiers and commanders departed from the island, and never again did they set foot on British soil.

SUMMARY

Julius Cæsar first led the Romans into Britain. He found a people that were warlike, of some mechanical ability, and with a slight knowledge of agriculture. Rome celebrated the invasion, but made no immediate attempts to conquer the country. About a century later, the Romans, after a fierce contest, subdued the island as far north as the Solway, made settlements, drained swamps, built walls and roads, cultivated the soil, and ruled in the land for nearly four hundred years. They finally abandoned the country in 410 A.D.

CHAPTER II

THE SAXONS AND THE DANES

410–1066

11. **The coming of the Saxons.**—After the Romans had abandoned the island, the condition of the Britons was pitiable. They had been so long under the protection of the Roman soldiers that they had almost forgotten how to defend themselves, and, moreover, the various tribes were quarrelling with one another as they had done when the Romans first invaded Britain. The Scots and Picts were coming down upon them from the north and north-west, and the Saxons were coming from over the sea and landing on the eastern and southern shores. These marauders burned the houses and crops, stole the treasures, and either killed the people or carried them away as slaves. At last the sufferers sent a piteous letter to Rome. It was called "The Groans of the Britons," and it begged that the Romans would come and help them. "The barbarians," it said, "drive us to the sea, the sea drives us back to the barbarians; and between them we are either slain or drowned." There were other barbarians, however, than those that distressed Britain, and now great hordes of them were coming down upon Rome, so that the Romans had more than they could do to take care of themselves, and not one soldier could be spared to help the Britons.

Finally, one tribe of the Britons decided to ask the aid of the Saxons against the Picts and the Scots, and agreed to allow them, in return for their assistance, to live on the island of Thanet, near the coast of Kent. The Saxons were willing and came in 449 under two chiefs, Hengist and Horsa. They drove back the Picts and the Scots, and they settled on Thanet. But before long they found Thanet too small, so they drove the Britons away from the southeastern corner of the land, and took it for themselves. Attracted by the rich plunder, the mildness of the climate, and the richness of the soil, more and more of the Saxons came, and the Britons were driven farther and farther to the west. They were not cowards, and they resisted so valiantly that it was more than one hundred years before they were really overcome.

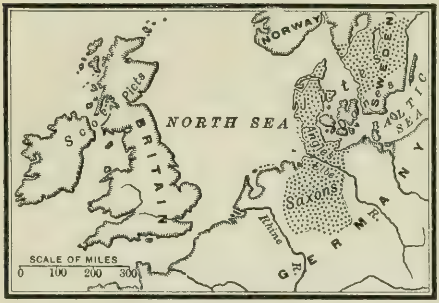
One of the British chiefs, King Arthur, succeeded in uniting the tribes of the Britons, and for a time made some headway against the heathen invaders. He is said to have made his residence at Caerleon in Wales, where he lived in splendid state, gathering about him many brave knights and beautiful ladies. Twelve of the noblest and bravest of these knights sat with the king about the "Round Table." These "Knights of the Round Table," were accustomed to ride out in search of adventures, and were bound by vows to protect women, punish oppressors, chain up wicked giants and dwarfs, and to drive back the heathen. In time King Arthur and his brave knights passed away, but the descendants of the Britons in Wales still tell the story of their early hero king.

Little is known about the fate of the Britons. Large numbers of them fell in battle; probably many of them became the slaves of the conquerors; the remainder were driven into the highlands of the north and the west. Thousands of the invaders, attracted by the fertile lands of the Britons and the plunder to be obtained, poured into the country. Britain was in the hands of the Saxons, and thenceforth the country was known as England.

12. **The Saxons on the continent.**—The new conquerors had lived in Jutland and about the mouth of the Elbe River. There were in reality three tribes, the Jutes, Angles, and Saxons, but the Britons spoke of them all as Saxons. They belonged to the Low German stock; that is, they lived in the low parts of Germany bordering on the Baltic and North Seas.

In the writings of the Roman historian, Tacitus, there is a description of the German tribes to which the Saxons belonged. The men were tall and muscular, with fair hair and blue eyes. They lived in small villages and all the land was owned in common. Each man had his own house with a small piece of land attached, and in addition a strip of ground which he cultivated for himself. In order that there might be no unfair advantage, these strips were exchanged among the villagers at regular intervals.

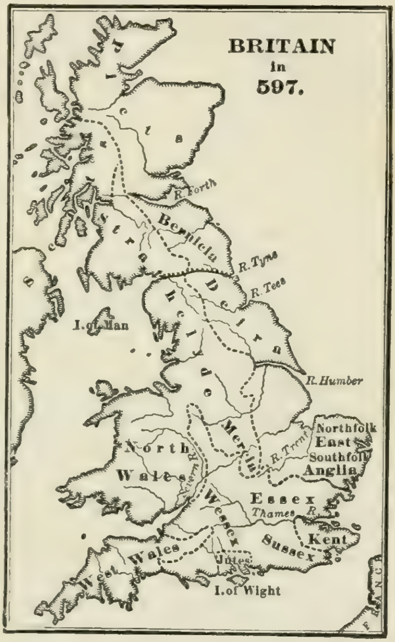
Each village was surrounded by a belt of waste land or forest, which separated it from the neighbouring tribes. On the inside of this belt was a ditch and rude fence called the *tun*, from which comes our word "town." This served as a fortification in case of war. Within the village were three classes of people. The largest was the *ceorls*, or *churls*, described as the "free" men, or the "weaponed" men; for no freeman, says Tacitus, "ever transacts business, public or private, unless fully armed." Another class was the *eorls*, or *earls*, who were of noble blood, and were held in great reverence. From this class, chiefs were chosen in time of war, and rulers in time of peace. Besides these two classes there were in every village a small number of *thralls*, or slaves, who could be bought and sold at the master's pleasure. They were persons who had been captured in war and who had not been ransomed.



EARLY HOMES OF THE ENGLISH

When laws were to be made or war entered upon, all the freemen assembled in a *tungemot* or town meeting. Says Tacitus, "Each man takes his place completely armed. Silence is proclaimed by the priests. The chief of the community opens the debate; the rest are heard in their turn, according to age, nobility of descent, renown in war, or fame for eloquence. If anything is advanced not agreeable to the people, they reject it with a general murmur. If any proposition pleases them, they flourish their spears; for this is their highest mark of applause, to praise by the sound of their arms."

These German tribes worshipped many gods. The English names for some of the days of the week are derived from the names of their principal deities. Wednesday is the day of Woden, or Odin, the father of the gods, from whom the chiefs claimed descent. Thursday is Thor's day; Friday is Freya's day; and Tuesday is named for Tiw, the god of death.



War was the chief occupation of these tribes. It was considered disgraceful to get anything by peaceful industry that could be obtained by war; and they believed that the warrior who fell with his face to the foe was carried at once by the Valkyries, or "war-maidens," to the great hall of Woden to enjoy an eternity of fighting and feasting in the company of heroes.

13. **The Saxon kingdoms.**—At first the Saxons were divided into many tribes, each with its own territory. The South-Saxons lived in Sussex, the West-Saxons in Wessex, and the East-Saxons in Essex. The Jutes settled chiefly in Kent, and the Angles in Mercia, East Anglia and Northumbria. These seven kingdoms were called the Heptarchy.

These seven kingdoms were constantly engaged in a struggle for the mastery; but at last, in 827, Egbert, king of Wessex, showed himself stronger than the rest, and one by one the others acknowledged him as overlord; that is, they paid tribute to him, and promised to obey if he called upon them to help him fight. He took the title of "King of the English," and, with a very few exceptions, every sovereign of England from that day to this has been a descendant of Egbert.

14. **Christianity is preached in England.**—The Britons had known something of Christianity long before this; but after the Saxons came, there was so little of it left in the country that people spoke of the island as a heathen land. There were Christians hidden away in the mountains of Wales; and in Ireland a zealous missionary, Saint Patrick, had told the Irish of Christianity, and they had flourishing churches and famous schools, while England was worshipping the heathen gods. England was not entirely forsaken, however, for far away, over the sea and over the mountains, was a monk named Gregory who was thinking very earnestly about the needs of this land. One day he had seen in the market-place in Rome some young English who were to be sold as slaves. Most of the Romans had dark complexions, and he was struck with the appearance of these English, with their fair skin, red cheeks, blue eyes, and golden hair. "Not Angles, but angeles," said he, "with faces so angel-like!" When Gregory became Pope, he resolved to christianize the country from which these English came. As he could not himself leave Rome, he sent, in 597, a missionary named Augustine to preach the Gospel to the English.

The king of Kent, Ethelbert, had married Bertha, a Christian princess from Germany, and so did not object to Augustine's coming to England; at least, he was willing that the missionaries should land on the island of Thanet. "Then," he said, "I will meet you there, and hear what you have to say about this new religion, and if it seems to me to be true, I will accept it." The missionaries came, and Augustine stood before the king and told him about the religion of the one God. Although the Saxons were never hasty in accepting new ideas, it was not long before the king told Augustine that he believed the new religion was true, and that he was glad to have the missionaries teach his people about it. The example of Ethelbert had its influence, and the new faith spread rapidly. The monks who came with Augustine were wise men who knew that the people could not change their fierce, cruel natures in a few months. They laboured faithfully and set noble examples of pure, self-sacrificing lives, so that, litttle by little, the whole island was won over to Christianity.

As soon as a district was christianized, a monastery was founded. Nor were the monks merely missionaries and teachers; every monastery had its fields, where grains and vegetables of many kinds were grown and where fruits were cultivated. In this way the monks were able to do much good, because every monastery became a centre where men were prepared for a higher life by being taught how best to live this life.

15. **Cædmon, the first English poet.**—Convents also soon began to rise in the land. One of these convents was on a cliff at Whitby, far up on the north-east shore of England. It was the custom at the feasts for each one in turn to take the harp and sing verses that he either composed or remembered. There is a legend that Cædmon, one of the dwellers at this convent, felt so disgraced because he could not sing any verses that, when the harp was coming near him, he slipped away and went to the stable. In a dream he heard a voice saying:—

"Cædmon, sing!"

"But I cannot sing," he said, "and that is why I came away from the feast."

"You must sing for me," said the voice.

"What shall I sing?" asked Cædmon.

"Sing about the creation of the world," answered the voice.

Cædmon sang, and when he awoke he found that he had not forgotten the verses. The abbess was told of the wonderful dream, and, after Cædmon had made more verses, she concluded that the new power that had come to him was a gift from God. His poem is about the creation, and is a kind of paraphrase of the Book of Genesis. This is, so far as we know, the first poetry that was written in England.

16. **Bede, the first writer of English prose.**—For the first prose we must turn to one of the monasteries and to a monk whose name was Bede. He must have been one of the busiest of people, as this monastery was also a great school. There were six hundred monks, and no one knows how many other men who came there to study. Bede helped to teach these men; he performed all the religious duties of a monk, and he also shared in the work of the farm. With all this work, he found time to write much poetry, and many volumes about science, music, and medicine. At length the king of Northumbria asked him if he would not write a history of the church in England, and so it came about that he wrote the "Ecclesiastical History." It is almost the only book that tells us about the early days of Britain, but from it we have to select what is probably true, and what was only hearsay among a people who were ready to believe anything, if it was only wonderful enough.

As Latin was the language of the church and of the monastery, Bede naturally wrote in Latin; but he wished to put the Bible into English so that the uneducated people might understand it. He worked on this translation till the last day of his life, dictating the Gospel of Saint John to one of his pupils. At last when evening came he closed his eyes in weariness. The young man said:—

"There is one sentence to write, dear master."

"Take your pen and write quickly," said Bede.

"Now it is finished," said the pupil.

"Yes, it is finished," said Bede. He chanted a few words of praise to God and closed his eyes. This pupil is the one that tells us the story, and we may believe it to be true. It is a great pity that the translation has been lost, for it was the first piece of prose that was written in England.

17. **The invasions of the Danes.**—King Egbert had just forced the other Saxon kings to own him as their overlord, when an enemy appeared that threatened to ruin every Saxon kingdom in Britain. The land had been overrun, first by Romans, then by Saxons, and it began to

seem now as if foreigners were to sweep over it for the third time. These foreigners are usually spoken of as Danes, or Northmen, and included those who lived anywhere in the vicinity of the Baltic Sea. The Saxons and Danes were of the same race, but while the Saxons had become Christians, the Danes still worshipped the heathen gods; and while the Saxons had learned to live peacably on the land, the Danes thought that nothing was so glorious as to set out in a war vessel with a company of wild, reckless followers, to go wherever the waves and the winds might bear them; to land upon any shore, no matter where; to destroy, burn, kill, fill their ship with treasure, with slaves, clothes, dried meat,—anything that they could seize,—and carry it all back to their own country, to show their prowess to those who had remained at home.

A Saxon House

King Egbert was able to drive these robbers away, and so was his son after him; but in the reigns of Egbert's grandsons, matters grew worse and worse, for the Danes came in great swarms. There would be an alarm from the east, but before the king could go to the rescue, another alarm would come from the south. Houses were burned, people tortured or killed or carried away as slaves. If a man planted a field of grain, he had little hope of being able to reap it. The Danes hated the English for giving up the old gods, Woden and Thor, and they delighted in killing the monks and in robbing and burning the churches and monasteries. Everything that was made of gold or of silver was seized by the robbers. The precious manuscripts were of no value to them, and they took special care to burn every one that they could find, because they believed that the mysterious letters were magical signs that would work them harm if they were not destroyed. So great was the fear of the Danes that in many places this prayer was added to the church Litany: "From the fury of the Northmen, Good Lord, deliver us."

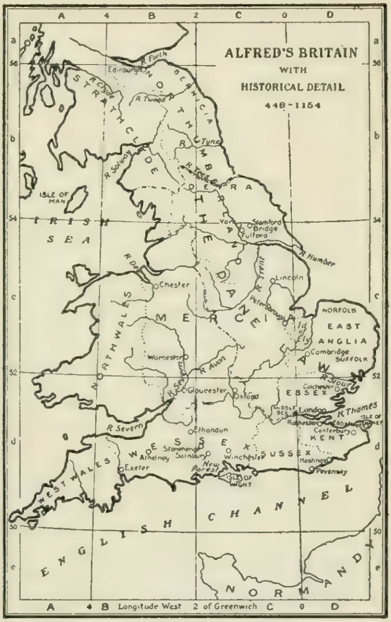
18. **The reign of Alfred the Great, 871-901.**—The youngest of Egbert's grandsons, who was named Alfred, was only twenty-two years of age when he became king. He was a great favourite among his people, but they were too wretched to have any rejoicing when he came to the throne.

Faster and faster came the Danes. Alfred fought them bravely, but their forces were overwhelming. The whole land was overrun, and Alfred could no longer hold the throne. But he had no idea of abandoning his country. After suffering a severe defeat, he withdrew to a marshy island called Athelney, in Somersetshire, and waited, training his men, and planning how to get the better of the enemy.

After a time, when Alfred felt that his army was ready, he attacked the Danes at Ethandune, in Wiltshire, and won a decisive victory. The Danes were now ready for peace, and at Wedmore, in 878, agreed to acknowledge Alfred as their overlord, to be baptized as Christians, and to remain in the north-eastern part of England. They were also to give hostages and were to become peaceful farmers. These promises they faithfully kept. The region given over to the Danes was known as the Danelaw, as there they enforced their own laws.

The Danes, however, still continued to pour into England. Alfred was wise enough to see that the only way to prevent these constant invasions was to meet his enemies on the sea. Accordingly, he built a fleet of strong, swift ships, with which he attacked the Danes and defeated them. Then he constructed a line of forts along the seacoast, and organized his army so that he would have on hand at all times a sufficient force to meet any danger that might threaten. The Danes finally saw that they were neither strong enough nor skilful enough to overcome the English king, and they left him in peace.

Alfred now had leisure to turn his attention to the improvement of his kingdom. He rebuilt the churches that had been burned by the Danes, and erected others. He founded monasteries and schools, and invited scholars from other countries to come to England to teach his people. He translated Bede's "Ecclesiastical History" and several other works into English, in order that the young people of the country might learn to read their native language. He began the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle," a record of the chief events that had happened in England from the earliest times. The monks had charge of this book, and whenever anything of importance happened in the kingdom, they wrote the story. This writing was kept up for two hundred and fifty years after Alfred's death.



Alfred also improved the laws and enforced them severely but justly. He collected the best of the Saxon laws and added to them the Ten Commandments. So great was Alfred's reputation in after time as a stern and upright king, that the story was told that he hanged one judge for condemning to death a man who had been convicted by nine jurors instead of twelve, and that he hanged another judge who convicted a man when the jury were in doubt. Every crime had its punishment, and generally the punishment was a money payment by the family of the wrong-doer to the family of the man injured. "If a man strike another man's ear off, let him give thirty shillings to boot. If the arm be broken above the elbow, there shall be fifteen shillings to boot. If the thumb be struck off, for that shall be thirty shillings to boot."

King Alfred died in 901. He had saved his land from the Danes, he had begun the English navy, he had given England a just code of laws, he had built churches and monasteries, had opened schools and translated books. No other king in the history of the world has ever done so much for his country. He has well been called Alfred the Great.

19. **The successors of Alfred.**—The kings who succeeded Alfred wisely followed his policy of maintaining a strong fleet and garrisons of soldiers in forts along the coast. There was no serious outbreak among the Danes in England, or invasions from Denmark, until after the death of Edgar in 975. Edgar was a strong king, and he had a wise counsellor in Dunstan, the Archbishop of Canterbury. Dunstan gave to the Danes who lived in England local rulers of their own blood and allowed them to enjoy their own laws, thus gaining their good-will and friendship. He followed the example of Alfred in bringing to England scholars from other lands to teach in the schools. Under his direction, also, a standard system of weights and measures was established.

20. **The Danish kings of England.**—Ethelred, the younger of Edgar's two sons, became king in 979. Ethelred, who was called the Unready, or Uncounselled, reigned thirty-seven years, and before he died a Danish king sat on the throne of England. The earls of the northern provinces and the Danish chiefs in England rebelled. Pirates ravaged the coasts. In 982 the kings of Norway and Denmark came with a great swarm of Northmen to plunder England. Vast sums of money, raised by a tax on the land called the Danegeld, were paid by Ethelred to induce the Northmen to withdraw. They took the money, but became more insolent and warlike than before. At last Ethelred ordered a general massacre of Danes throughout the kingdom on St. Brice's Day,

November 13th, 1002. The unsuspecting people were killed by thousands. They crowded into the churches and were slain around the altars. Among the victims was Gunhilda, the Danish king's sister, who had become a Christian and had married in England.

King Sweyn vowed to be avenged for his sister's death, and entered the river Humber with a great army. He marched southwards, and city after city fell before him. Finally London surrendered, Ethelred fled to France, and Sweyn was made king of England. But Sweyn soon died, and Ethelred returned. Then Ethelred too died, and his eldest son, Edmund Ironside, was murdered. In 1016 Canute, Sweyn's son, became king of all England, after fighting the Saxons for several years.

Canute exiled or killed the Englishmen who had any claim to the crown or who were likely to oppose him; but after he was safely on the throne, he became a king of whom the English were very proud. He was kind and just; he rewarded right and punished wrong; and he was willing to suffer when he himself had acted unjustly. In the government of England, he seemed to prefer Englishmen to Danes in offices. On one occasion, when he went on a visit to Denmark, he left an Englishman, Godwin, Earl of Wessex, to rule the country during his absence. Actions such as this endeared him to his subjects in England. Canute governed England in peace for eighteen years.

King Canute

Of course so upright a king was praised on every hand, and it is a wonder that he did not become selfish and arrogant. There is a story that his courtiers told him he was lord of land and sea, and even the waves would obey him. To teach them a lesson, he had his royal chair placed on the beach when the tide was rising. Then he said: "Ocean, this is my island, and you, too, are only a part of my domain. I command you not to wet even the border of my robe." Nearer and nearer came the waves, while around the king's chair stood the courtiers, wondering what would happen, and fearing lest their ruler should punish them for their flattery. At last a wave broke upon the sacred person of the king. Then he turned to his courtiers and said gently: "Do not forget that the power of kings is a small matter. He who is King of kings and Lord of lords, He is the One whom the earth and the sea and the heavens obey."

When Canute died in 1035, the people of England were sincerely sorry, especially as his sons, Harold and Hardicanute, were not worthy of so good a father. They reigned, however, for a few years, first one son and then the other, but the English were more and more displeased with their injustice and cruelty, and when they died, no one mourned. They were the last kings that ruled over both England and Denmark.

21. **The English kings restored.**—The English now began to wish to have an Englishman again on the throne, and they chose Edward, the son of Ethelred, the Unready. This Edward was a middle-aged man, and, since he had been brought up in France, where he had fled for refuge, it is probable that he could speak little English; but as he was a good man and a descendant of the royal line, the English invited him to be their king, and when he came to them, they gave him a hearty welcome.

22. **Government under the Saxons.**—The England of this period was for the most part a land of small country villages, the old "tuns" or townships, whose people lived by tilling the soil. Each man had his strip of the arable land while the pasture and waste land about the village was held in common. But the village was no longer the community of independent freemen described by Tacitus. Now, the little wooden houses of the tillers of the soil, afterwards called "villeins," were grouped about the larger house of the chief man, later known as the lord of the manor. To him they owed certain services and from him they received protection. These villages or manors were grouped

into larger divisions called "hundreds," probably because they had in early times about a hundred freemen capable of serving in war or as jurors in the courts. Many hundreds made up a shire. Each shire had its shire court presided over by an alderman and each had its "shire-reeve" or sheriff who was the king's representative and watched over his interests. Over all were the king and the Witenagemot, or Witan. The king's authority varied greatly according to the personal ability of the men who held the office. He was, in general, the law-giver, the leader of the army, and the judge. His power in the state grew as the extent of his dominions increased. In all important matters, he took the advice of the Witenagemot, or meeting of the wise men, an assembly made up of the chief officers of the king's court, the bishops and abbots of the church, and the aldermen of the shires. With the consent of the freeholders of the country, this assembly passed laws, voted money, and on the death of the king chose his successor, though up to this time they had always chosen some member of the royal family. The Witenagemot was the most important governing body in England.

SUMMARY

At the request of the Britons, the Saxons drove away the barbarians of the north. Soon they killed or expelled the Britons also and seized the land for themselves. They finally accepted Christianity, but the rapid spread of civilization was arrested by the ravages of the Danes. Alfred the Great restored the land to peace and safety, but after his death the Danish power increased, so that, for a time, England was ruled by Danish kings. The first literature composed on English soil was the work of Cædmon, Bede, and Alfred the Great.

CHAPTER III

THE NORMANS

1066—1154

1. WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR, 1066-1087

23. **The home of the Normans in France.**—About the time of Alfred the Great, a bold sea-rover from Norway, named Rolf, succeeded in winning from the king of France a strip of land around the mouth of the Seine River. Here he settled with thousands of his Northmen, who were of the same blood as the Saxons and the Danes. Because their old home was Norway, these people called their new home Normandy and themselves Normans. Rolf married a French princess and was baptized a Christian. His people also became Christians, intermarried with the French, and adopted the French language. They were quick to yield to the softening influences of French civilization, and within a hundred years they had become Frenchmen in language, customs, and religion.

24. **Edward's plan to bequeath his crown.**—When, in 1042, Edward came to the throne of England he brought with him from Normandy, where he had spent his youth, a great crowd of Norman favourites and priests, to whom he gave the best places in the government and the church. He carried his liking for the Normans so far that he even promised to give, at his death, his crown to William, Duke of Normandy. Edward was a very pious man, so pious indeed, that he was afterwards called "the Confessor," but he did not rule England for the benefit of the English, nor, when he made his promise to William, was he thinking of the welfare of his English subjects.

Edward died in 1066, and Harold, a son of Earl Godwin, and the most powerful nobleman in the kingdom, was elected by the Witan to succeed him. It is said that Harold had once been shipwrecked on the coast of Normandy, and that he had been taken to Duke William's court, where he was treated as an honoured guest. When he came to depart, he was compelled to swear on the bones of some Norman saints that, when Edward died, he would support the claims of William to the throne of England. Neither Edward nor Harold, however, had any right to give away the throne, because only the Witan could choose the king.

25. **William prepares to invade England.**—In addition to the promise of Edward and the forced oath of Harold, William claimed the throne of England as the inheritance of his wife, Matilda, who was a descendant of Alfred. He obtained from the Pope, on the ground that Harold had been false to his oath, a decree declaring the new king to be a usurper, and himself the rightful heir. With some difficulty he persuaded the Norman barons to assist him in the enterprise. He called also to his standard adventurers from other parts of Europe, promising them large rewards. Within six months, a huge army, with, it is said, seven hundred ships, was ready for the invasion of England.

A NORMAN KNIGHT

26. **The battle of Stamford Bridge.**—Harold heard of William's plans and gathered an army to resist the invasion. But a new danger threatened his kingdom from the north. His brother, Tostig, who had been driven from his earldom of Northumberland on account of his bad government and cruelty, had persuaded Harold Hardrada, king of Norway, to assist him in an attack on England. With a large army, Tostig and Harold Hardrada landed in Yorkshire and captured the city of York. King Harold at once marched

northwards and met the invading army at Stamford Bridge. He was quite willing to make peace with his brother, and promised him everything he wished except the throne, but he refused to give Hardrada anything in England except "seven feet of earth for a grave, or as much more as he is taller than other men." Tostig refused to make peace, and a bloody battle followed, in which both Tostig and Harold Hardrada were killed and their army put to the sword. While Harold was feasting at York in honour of this great victory, he received news that Duke William had landed at Pevensey, near the town of Hastings, in the south.

27. **The battle of Hastings, or Senlac, 1066.**—Harold immediately summoned troops from all over the kingdom to repel the invaders, and at once marched to London. But the levies were slow in arriving, none, indeed, coming from the north, and he determined not to delay further. Six days after he reached London, he took up his position on Senlac Hill, about seven miles from Hastings, near which the Norman forces had strongly entrenched themselves. This hill was guarded with stout palisades. His men were ordered to stand firm behind their shield-wall, and to repel the attacks of the enemy.

The Norman archers opened the battle, and then the Norman knights advanced to the attack. They could not break through the English defences, behind which, with spear and axe, the stout warriors cut down every Norman who was bold enough to enter. For more than six hours the English repelled the repeated charges of the enemy. At length they rushed out of their fort to pursue some fleeing troops. William rallied his men, and, facing about, they slaughtered their pursuers. The duke himself led a fierce charge against the king's standard, around which were gathered the flower of the English. They stood firm. William then feigned retreat; the undisciplined English troops were again drawn into a pursuit, and great numbers of them were cut down by the Norman horsemen. Towards sunset, William gave the command, "Shoot upwards, Norman archers, that the arrows may fall upon their faces!" One of the descending shafts entered the eye of the English king. The Norman knights rushed towards the royal standard, for while that waved the English would never retreat. In the deadly struggle about the flag Harold fell. His own guard would take no quarter and died to a man in his defence; but the rest of the army fled, and the Norman duke had won the battle of Hastings and the kingdom of England.

28. **William is elected king.**—The victory at Hastings gave William control of the south of England, but it did not give him the crown. He was soon able to arrange his forces in such a way that London was cut off from the north, and therefore at his mercy. The Witan, although they had determined to resist the conqueror with all their power, now felt that the struggle would be hopeless. Two months after the battle on the Hill of Senlac, they offered the crown to William. He accepted it as a lawfully chosen king, and after a solemn religious service in Westminster Abbey, was crowned on Christmas Day. It was an old Saxon custom that, when the crown was placed upon the king's head, the people should raise a shout as a sign of their willingness to submit to his rule. The English shout so startled the Norman soldiers that they rushed on the crowd, and the coronation ceremony ended in riot and bloodshed.

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR
From his great seal

29. **The last stand of the English.**—The estates of the English who fought at Hastings had been seized by the king; his army also had taken a vast amount of plunder before the coronation. But this was too little to satisfy the greed of the Normans, or to carry out the promises of the king to his followers. William claimed to be an Eng-

lish king, the lawful successor of Edward, and it would not do for a king to plunder his own people. But frequent revolts of the English soon gave him an excuse.

A few months after his coronation, William returned to Normandy. Thereupon the Norman soldiers began to rob and abuse the English people. When the people appealed to the Norman officers, they were refused protection and justice. They rose in rebellion and began to attack the garrisons. Soon after this outbreak, William returned to England, determined to crush the English, who, he declared, could not be won by kindness.

One after another the rebellious districts were conquered, but not without great difficulty. On one occasion the English called in the help of the Danes, and captured York, where they killed three thousand Norman soldiers. For this William took a terrible revenge. He bribed the Danes to retire and then laid waste the country from the Humber to the Tees. His orders were that every living thing, men, women, children, and cattle, should be slain; that all crops and buildings should be burned; and that farming tools should be broken, so that there might be no means of supporting life. Of the people who escaped to the moors and mountains, it is said a hundred thousand died of starvation. So thoroughly was the work done, that the country north of the Humber remained a desert for fifty years.

For years afterwards, the English loved to honour the name of one of their number who had made the most determined stand against William. This was Hereward the Wake, "the last of the English," as he is called. He had taken refuge with his followers on the island of Ely, which was separated from the mainland by two miles of marsh. William was compelled to build a solid road through the marsh in order to reach the island, and even then it was with difficulty that he forced the English to surrender. Hereward escaped across the swamps and hid in the woods. The king, who admired a brave warrior, offered to pardon him and to restore his estates. Hereward swore allegiance to William and was faithful to him for the rest of his life.

30. **The introduction of the Feudal System.**—Peace now reigned in England; the English were completely vanquished. William declared the property of all those who had fought against him to be forfeited, and thus became the owner of nearly the whole of England. He allowed the English thanes to keep some small estates, but the greater part of the land he divided among his own followers. In this way about twenty thousand Normans became landholders in England.

In giving grants of land in England to his followers, William introduced what is known as the *Feudal System*, a method of holding land then quite common on the continent. Under this system all land belonged to the king, and such of his territory as he did not wish for his own use, he granted to barons or lords. These barons granted smaller portions to knights, who had under them villeins, or serfs, who tilled the soil. In return for his lands the baron promised to bring, when called upon, a certain number of knights to fight for the king, and in addition to make certain money payments. The baron granted his lands to knights on much the same terms, and while the baron became a vassal to the king, the knight in turn became a vassal to the baron.

When a baron received a grant of land he had to kneel before the king bareheaded, and place his hands in those of his sovereign. He then took a solemn oath to be a true and faithful subject. "I will be your man with life and limb, and I will keep my faith and loyalty to you for life and death." This ceremony was called *paying homage*, and was required by the king from every baron, and by each baron from his knights. In order that the barons' vassals might not feel more strongly bound to their immediate lords than to their sovereign, they were compelled to take an oath of allegiance to the king also. They were first sworn to be loyal to the king, and next to him they must obey the lords upon whose estates they lived. In addition to service in war, a baron was bound to pay money to the king upon certain specified occasions: to redeem the king from bondage if he were captured in war; to bear the expense of making the king's eldest son a knight; to provide a marriage portion for the king's eldest daughter, and to pay a special tax when he first obtained his lands, whether by inheritance or by purchase. If the baron died leaving young children, the king was their guardian, and, until they became of age, he could claim all the profits from the estate. The baron's orphan daughter could marry only with the king's consent, and he usually gave her hand to the suitor who could repay the favour with a handsome gift.

31. **William's government.**—After William had subdued the English, he tried to rule the country justly and well. He was stern, but a lover of peace. The "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" tells us that "he made such good peace in the land that a man that was good for aught might travel over England with his bosom full of gold without molestation." He had a high regard for religion, and he never appointed ignorant or wicked men to high positions in the church. Lanfranc, for example, one of the most learned and pure-minded men in Europe, he made Archbishop of Canterbury. His Council was composed of the great landowners—that is, of the higher clergy and the barons of the realm. Three times each year they were summoned to meet the king to consult with him about the government of the country, and to assist in the administration of justice. Archbishops, bishops, earls, and barons came from all over England, and the king was able to learn everything of importance concerning the state of the kingdom. This body, the successor of the Witan, became known as the "Great Council." It was the aim of William to continue as far as possible the English institutions and laws, for he wished to be considered, not as a conqueror, but as the rightful successor of Edward.

32. **The grievances of the English.**—While the English admitted that William was just, and that he gave peace to the land, he did several things that seemed to them most tyrannical. Even in Edward's reign many of the chief offices in church and state had been held by Frenchmen, and now under William there was hardly an Englishman in a high position anywhere in the land. This was very hard

to bear, especially as the Norman masters looked upon the English as their inferiors and often treated them cruelly and insolently.

These Normans who were in power were allowed to build stone castles with walls enormously thick, so that they might be safe against any attack of the natives. The strongest part of these castles was called the tower, or keep, and here the Norman and his family lived. On the main floor was the hall, or general living-room. The windows were small, and the castle was often a cold, damp place; but in the hall there were great cheery fires, there was tapestry on the walls, and here the family were very comfortable. Down below the hall were gloomy dungeons, where a noble might throw any one who had offended him and was less strong than he. Around the tower was a courtyard, shut in by a thick wall with a moat and drawbridge and a heavy portcullis that could be dropped in a moment, if there was not time to close the gate. Of the strong castles which William himself built in the principal cities, the most famous is the Tower of London.

Three of the changes introduced by William made the English especially angry. One was the enforcement of the Curfew Law. The name comes from the French *couvre-feu*, to cover the fire, and the law required that at eight o'clock in winter and at sunset in summer, every fire should be covered and every light put out. This was an old custom in France to prevent the burning of houses, but it had never been enforced in England, and the people felt that it was nothing but tyranny.

Another change that made the English angry was the establishing of the New Forest. William was very fond of the chase, and enclosed, as a private hunting-ground, an immense tract of land not far from his palace in Winchester. He ordered all buildings within the limits of the forest to be destroyed, and left the people to find homes as best they could. That he had done this merely for his own pleasure made it all the harder to bear. The king also decreed the severest penalties if a man shot a deer in the Forest, or even if he was found there with a bow and arrow.

But, after all, what most enraged the helpless English was that William ordered to be made a complete record of the people and the property in the kingdom. This he did, so that he might know how to apportion the taxes. The people called this record the Domesday Book, because, they said, what was once written in it was as final as the day of doom. To compile this, William sent men throughout the kingdom to find out just how much property each man had. The people were indignant, not only because they thought that their taxes would be increased if William knew everything that they owned, but also because it seemed to them a great impertinence for the officers of the king to come into their houses and demand to know just what they possessed. The "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" says bitterly: "It is shameful to relate that which he thought it no shame to do. So very narrowly did he cause the survey to be made that there was not an ox or a cow or a pig passed by that was not set down in the accounts, and then all these writings were brought to him." The record shows that the population at this time was about two millions.

33. **The death of William.**—William reigned for twenty-one years. His eldest son, Robert, had rebelled against him, and had given him a great deal of trouble, but William left him his French dominions. To Henry, the youngest son, he left five thousand pounds in silver; and on behalf of William Rufus, or William the Red, his second son, he sent, through Archbishop Lanfranc, a letter recommending that the English should choose him for their king.

SUMMARY

In 1066 William, Duke of Normandy, a relative of the late Saxon king, won the crown at the battle of Hastings in which Harold, the king chosen by the English, was slain. William rewarded his followers with English lands and English offices. The building of stone castles began. Several of William's laws aroused the indignation of his new subjects, but the "Chronicle" admits that he was just, though severe. The Conquest brought to England the impulse of the bold Norman spirit, the greater refinement of the French language, and a strong government which gave peace to the land and did much to make a united nation.

2. William II. 1087-1100

34. **The barons rebel against the king.** — Two weeks after the death of William the Conqueror, William Rufus was crowned king of England. There was no opposition to his coronation, supported as he was by the authority of Lanfranc and the church. But in a few months a conspiracy was formed among the barons to dethrone the new king, and to put his brother Robert in his place. Many of the barons held land both in England and in Normandy, and they did not wish to pay homage to two overlords. In the event of war between the brothers, they would be forced to choose on which side they would fight, and so would be in danger of losing their land in either the one country or the other. The barons also felt that under William they would be kept in subjection, while under Robert they would be able to do very much as they pleased. The conspiracy spread, and before long nearly every baron in England, with his vassals, was in arms against the king.

William, on his part, had no intention of giving up his crown. He had the powerful support of the church, and he now called on the English, who formed the great mass of the nation, to come to his aid. The English were ready to support him and rallied to his side. Against the united power of the king, the church, and the English, the barons were powerless. The rebellion lasted only a few months. A few of the leaders were punished, but the greater number were pardoned by the king.

35. **Oppressive rule of William.**—The chief object of William Rufus during his reign seems to have been to extort as much money as he could from the barons, the church, and the people. The barons were compelled to pay to the utmost the feudal dues, while the people were oppressed with so heavy taxes that many of them died of starvation. The church, too, felt the heavy hand of the king. He not only seized upon church property, but, what was very much worse, he gave her abbacies and bishoprics only to men who would pay him well.

When Lanfranc died, William left the archbishopric vacant, so that he might enjoy the rich revenues of the see. It happened, however, that he was taken seriously ill, and, in the fear of death, he appointed Anselm, a learned and pious monk, to the vacant office. When he recovered, he was so angry to think that he had given up the great revenues of Canterbury, that he opposed the new archbishop in almost everything he undertook. Anselm finally withdrew from England and did not return until the king was dead.

The money wrung from the kingdom by extortion and injustice was used in large part by William to maintain a small army of mercenary soldiers, who were ready to obey his commands, however ruthless these might be. It is probable that there would have been an attempt to dethrone him, but that the barons felt that they would not have the support of the English. The English, on their part, were afraid that if William were driven out of the country, the barons would be strong enough to place Robert on the throne. They preferred William as the lesser of two evils. "The land could only suffer and wait, and at last rejoice that the reign was no longer."

William had never given up the idea of possessing Normandy. Robert was careless and lavish, and once, when he wanted money, he had willingly sold a strip of Norman territory to his brother. Finally, Robert wished to go on a crusade. The sale of a part of his land would not suffice, and, in order to procure the ten thousand pounds that was needed, he promised William all the revenues of Normandy for the next five years.

36. **The crusades.**—The crusades were expeditions undertaken by various Christian nations against the Saracens, who ruled in the Holy Land. It had long been regarded as a deed of great merit to go on a pilgrimage to Rome, and of even greater to press on to Jerusalem. Aside from the religious benefits that people who became pilgrims thought they would obtain, there was a great fascination about such a journey. The travellers would see strange countries and meet with strange people. There would be many

opportunities to win fame and fortune, and the thought of possible dangers only added to the charm of the pilgrimage. It is no wonder that rich and poor, good and bad, were eager to take part in these wonderful expeditions.

While the Arabs ruled the Holy Land, pilgrims were protected and welcomed because they brought so much money to Jerusalem; but at last the Saracens conquered the country, and they imprisoned the pilgrims and tortured them, or even murdered them. The whole Christian church felt that something should be done. In 1095, a Frenchman, called Peter the Hermit, returned from a pilgrimage. He was an eloquent man, and when he told how much the pilgrims had to suffer and how wicked he thought it that the Holy Land should be in the hands of men who hated the Christians, thousands of people resolved to try to take Palestine from the Saracens. They called such an expedition a crusade, because a red cross was fastened to their clothes, and the Latin word for *cross* is *crux*.

For a duke like Robert to go on a crusade meant more than putting on his armour, mounting his horse, and galloping away. There must be arms and horses and provisions, not only for himself, but for the servants and dependents who went with him. There must be money for countless expenses along the way, for alms-giving and for generous presents to churches and shrines. A duke might well need to pawn his duchy to obtain money to go on such an expedition. Robert pawned his and went on a crusade in 1095; for five years William collected the taxes of Normandy.

A CRUSADING KNIGHT

37. **The death of William.**—After a hunt in the New Forest, William was found dead, with an arrow in his breast. It was never known who shot the arrow. Some said it was shot at a stag and struck the king by accident. Others whispered that the king had been murdered by some revengeful Englishman, whose home had been destroyed in the making of the New Forest.

SUMMARY

William Rufus became king and was supported by the English and the clergy, though opposed by the barons. Fearing rebellions, he robbed the barons, plundered the church, and oppressed the people in order to maintain a large standing army. He advanced money for Duke Robert's crusade, and received in return the taxes of Normandy for five years. He was killed in the New Forest.

3. Henry I. 1100–1135

38. **Henry I becomes king.**—When William Rufus was shot in the New Forest, his brother Henry, who seems to have been one of the hunting party, galloped away to Winchester, as fast as his horse could carry him, in order to secure the royal treasury. If Robert had been on the spot, it is probable that the Norman barons would have stood by him, and that there might have been much trouble; but Robert had not yet returned from his crusade, and in a few days Henry was crowned. The English were glad to have him for king rather than his brother, for Henry was born in England, and had learned to speak English. Then, too, whenever they thought of Robert, they remembered that he was Duke of Normandy, and a friend of the Norman barons who had oppressed them.

In order to secure the support of the nation for himself and to prevent any attempt to place Robert on the throne, Henry issued a "Charter of Liberties." In this charter the king bound himself to respect the property of the church. He promised not to abuse his feudal rights over the barons, and in turn forbade the barons to extort money from their tenants. Finally, he promised to restore to the nation at large the old English law as William the Conqueror had amended it. Henry also pleased the people by his marriage with Matilda, the daughter of the king of Scotland, who was descended through her mother from Alfred the Great. The people now felt that they had ruling over them at last an English king and queen. The king further delighted his subjects by driving from the court the unworthy favourites of William and by recalling Anselm to his archbishopric.

39. **The contest for Normandy.**—The year following the coronation of Henry, Robert returned to Normandy and laid claim to the throne of England. Henry, on his part, was determined to obtain Normandy. The barons in both countries preferred Robert, because he was thoughtless and careless and lavish, and they believed that, with him for a ruler, they could do exactly as they chose. The church and the people supported Henry, and though Robert invaded England, a treaty was made by which he gave up his claim to the throne and Henry gave his brother three thousand marks a year and a strip of land adjoining Normandy.

There were still strong friends of Robert's in England, and although the brothers had agreed that neither should punish the adherents of the other, Henry at once showed that he had no idea of keeping the compact, and many of them fled to Normandy. It had also been agreed that neither country should receive the fugitives of the other; so when Robert received these men and gave them land and money, Henry crossed the Channel to take possession of Normandy. One town after another surrendered, and at last came the battle of Tenchebrai. Henry was the victor, and now, after he had been six years on the throne of England, Normandy was in his hands and Robert was a captive. A prisoner Robert remained for twenty-eight years, and in prison he died.

40. **Henry's reforms.**—As soon as Henry felt safe on his throne he did not hesitate to break many of the promises he had made in his charter. But he would allow no one else to break the laws. During his reign crime was severely

punished; it was said, "No man durst misdo against another in Henry's time." At one sitting of a court, forty-four robbers were hanged. He would not allow any coin to be made less than legal value, and any coiner who dared to do this had his hands struck off or his eyes put out. He would not allow any of his lords to take the people's property unjustly, nor would he permit his officers to take more than a certain quantity of provisions from the people without paying for them. Although he made the lives of his subjects miserable by his severe taxation, yet he levied these taxes regularly and by a fixed system. All taxes and fines were brought twice a year and paid to a special officer who received the money on a table divided into squares like a checker-board. This is the origin of the Court of Exchequer.

41. **Henry's dispute with the church.**—The question of the higher appointments in the church was a cause of dispute between Henry and the Pope. The estates of the clergy were held on the same conditions as the barons held their estates. Each bishop and abbot must do homage to the king, furnish soldiers, and pay the customary taxes. These dignitaries were selected by the king, though by church law they were supposed to be elected by the priests or monks of the cathedral, church or abbey. William, however, had so shamefully abused this power, that the Pope was trying to take away from the king the appointment and control of all church officers. Anselm refused to do homage to Henry, and a dispute arose which was finally settled by giving to the Pope the right of investing the bishops, while Henry reserved the right of exacting military service and of

FEMALE COSTUME, TIME OF HENRY I

supervising their election by the lower clergy. The king thus had the power of preventing the election of an enemy, while the Pope could exclude an incompetent or immoral man by refusing to install him in office.

42. **The death of Henry.**—Henry's only son, William, was drowned while crossing from Normandy to England. The ship put off at midnight with a gay company on board, among whom were Prince William and his sister. The sailors had drunk too much wine, and ran the ship on a rock. She sank almost immediately, and all were drowned except a poor butcher of Rouen, who lived to tell the story of the wreck. It is said that Henry never smiled after hearing of his son's death.

Robert of Normandy had died in prison, where Henry had placed him; Prince William was dead, and the disappointed old king planned to leave his crown to his daughter, Matilda, who had married Geoffrey, Count of Anjou, one of the most important provinces of France. The barons swore a solemn oath to support her claims, but they did it unwillingly, because it seemed strange to have a sovereign who could not lead them in war. In the midst of his plans for the succession to the throne, Henry died. His death was followed by anarchy.

SUMMARY

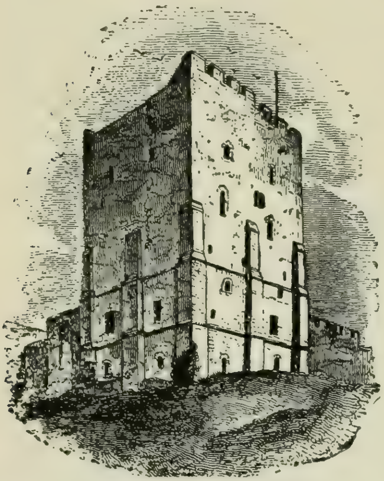
Henry's prompt action in seizing the crown forestalled the opposition which might have arisen from the barons on behalf of his brother. He was English by birth, and his wife was of English descent. Except for his severe taxation, he ruled so as to please his subjects. He issued a charter of liberties, punished dishonest coiners, and regulated the payment of taxes. By the battle of Tenchebrai, Normandy fell into his hands. Shortly before his death, he secured a promise from the barons that they would support the claims of his daughter Matilda to the throne.

4. STEPHEN. 1135—1154

43. **Accession of Stephen.**—Matilda had two sons, but they were not old enough to reign. Others who might

have a claim to the throne were three young men, sons of one of the daughters of William the Conqueror. These young men were in Normandy, and in the midst of the general lawlessness that followed the death of Henry, Stephen, the second son, made his way to London, and was received by the Londoners as their king.

Three weeks after Henry's death Stephen was crowned, and at once he gave the people two excellent charters, promising to treat them fairly and to do his best to be a good ruler. If he had been as strong as he was agreeable, England would have been saved many years of trouble, but his reign was nothing but turmoil from beginning to end. Matilda would not abandon her claim to the crown, and Stephen was neither powerful nor wise enough to oppose her successfully.



Porchester Castle, Built About 1150

44. **Behaviour of the English barons.**—The barons supported now one and now the other. In fact, they did not care much who was on the throne, if they were only free to do what they chose. More and more castles were built, as Stephen was too weak to prevent their erection. Every baron was a king over the district around him, and most of these barons were tyrants. The "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle," which stops with the reign of Stephen, says, "Every rich man built castles and defended them against all, and they filled the land with castles. They greatly oppressed the wretched people by making them work at these castles, and when the castles were finished, they filled them with devils

and evil men. Then they took those whom they suspected to have any goods, by night and by day, seizing both men and women, and put them in prison for their gold and silver, and tortured them with pains unspeakable, for never were any martyrs tormented as these were. They plundered and burned towns. Then was corn dear and flesh and cheese, for there was none in the land. They spared neither church nor churchyard, nor the lands of abbots or priests. It was said openly that Christ and his saints slept."

45. **Contest with Matilda.**—All this time Matilda was pressing her claims to the throne. Her uncle, David, King of Scotland, came to her assistance, and three times invaded England. The third time he was defeated by a brave priest, Thurstan, the old Archbishop of York, at the "Battle of the Standard." A tall cross mounted on a cart, and surrounded by the banners of Yorkshire saints, was taken into the field. At the foot of the cross the archbishop read prayers, and the English archers and the Norman knights pledged themselves to conquer or die. A furious attack of the Scots was repulsed, and David retreated, leaving twelve thousand men dead upon the field.

THE STANDARD

In one place after another the fighting went on for many years. At one time Stephen was taken prisoner, and Matilda ruled the country for a few months; but she was so proud and arrogant that the very barons that had most desired her for queen began to desert her. At another time she had a narrow escape from being captured, for Stephen's army surrounded the castle at Oxford in which she had taken refuge; but one day there was a heavy snowstorm, and that night Matilda and a few guards dressed themselves in white and slipped away silently over the snow and across the frozen Thames to a place of safety.

But the country was now worn out with fighting and both Matilda and Stephen were tired of the struggle, and ready for peace. A treaty was signed at Wallingford, by which it was agreed that Stephen should rule as long as he lived, and that at his death Henry, son of Matilda and Geoffrey of Anjou, should receive the crown. How long this treaty would have been kept is a question, but the next year Stephen died and Henry became king.

46. **Three languages in England.**—During this period there were three languages used in England. Latin was used in the courts of justice and in the church service. French was spoken at the court of the king, and was looked upon as the language of polite society. English was spoken by the masses of the English people. The literary language was Latin. French romances and songs were brought from France, but an Englishman would have thought it very strange to write a book in any other language than Latin.

Though English authors wrote in Latin, the subject of their books was almost invariably the history of their country. It may be that while the selfishness of William Rufus and the weakness of Stephen had shown them that what was the loss of one part of the nation was the loss of all, the strong, firm rule of the Conqueror and of Henry had given them an idea of what a power a united country might become. At any rate, the men who wrote were thinking of their country and writing books about her. One of the most interesting of these writers was a Welshman, called Geoffrey of Monmouth, who wrote a "History of the British Kings." Not very much of this book is true, but many of the stories are very interesting.

47. **Mystery plays.**—Another result of the sufferings of the English people was a great desire to know more of religion. When they were so miserable, their only hope was that after they died they would be happy enough to make up for what they had borne on earth. Very few of them could read, and it was difficult for them to understand any but the simplest of sermons. As so few teachers knew how to speak simply, the poor people would have been left in great ignorance had it not been for the pictures in the churches and for the mystery plays.

These pictures represented scenes in Bible history or in the lives of good men, and the people could walk about the churches and learn the stories from the pictures. The mystery plays were scenes from Bible history and were acted by the priests. They were meant not for amusement, but for teaching. First, there were prayers; then the priests and their assistants acted out the story of Cain and Abel, or of the creation, or of building the ark. At Christmas they acted the appearance of the angels to the shepherds, and at Easter they acted the resurrection. By and by, so many people came to see the plays that the church was not large enough; and then the priests acted in the churchyard, putting up a high stage, or platform, so that people could see and hear better. When still more people wished to see, first the priests, and then guilds, or companies of tradesmen, drove about the city in great two-story wagons, stopping at certain places to act the play. The upper story of these wagons represented heaven, the lower one was earth, and below the earth was the abode of the evil spirits. The angels had golden hair and white robes, while Satan wore a hideous suit of leather, covered with black hair and feathers and ending in claws at the hands and feet. The actors did everything that they could to make the plays seem real to the people; for instance, when they acted the creation, they suddenly let loose all the birds and beasts that they could get together, as if the animals had just been created.

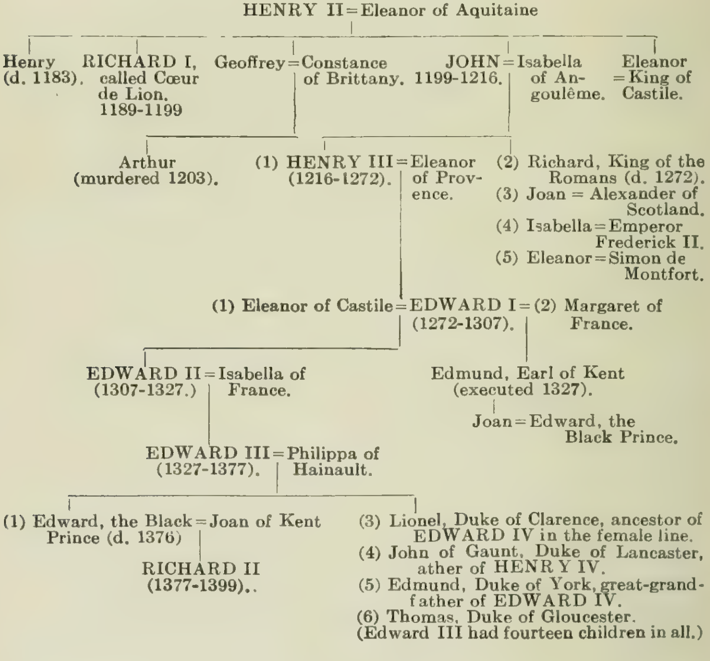
The people went to see the mystery plays as reverently as they went to church; and from them they gained a familiarity with much of the Bible story that they could hardly have obtained in any other way.

SUMMARY

Henry's determination that his daughter should rule was the cause of years of strife between her party and that of Stephen, Henry's nephew. During most of this time, Stephen was nominally king, but his rule was so inefficient that both England and Normandy were in great disorder. Finally, a compromise was made; Stephen was to reign as long as he lived, but was to be succeeded by Matilda's son, Henry. Bad as so weak a government was, its very lawlessness brought about a strong desire for peace and a firm rule. The English thought more of their

country as a whole, and several authors began to write the history of the land. Three languages were still used in England. Religious instruction was given to the people by means of pictures and mystery plays.

THE ANGEVIN OR PLANTAGENET KINGS OF ENGLAND


HENRY II = Eleanor of Aquitaine
Henry (d. 1183).
RICHARD I, called Cœur de Lion. 1189-1199
Geoffrey = Constance of Brittany.
JOHN = Isabella of Angoulême.
1199-1216.
Eleanor = King of Castile.
Arthur (murdered 1203).
(1) HENRY III = Eleanor of Provence.
(1216-1272).
(2) Richard, King of the Romans (d. 1272).
(3) Joan = Alexander of Scotland.
(4) Isabella = Emperor Frederick II.
(5) Eleanor = Simon de Montfort.
(1) Eleanor of Castile = EDWARD I = (2) Margaret of France.
(1272-1307).
EDWARD II = Isabella of France.
(1307-1327.)
Edmund, Earl of Kent (executed 1327).
Joan = Edward, the Black Prince.
EDWARD III = Philippa of Hainault.
(1327-1377).
(1) Edward, the Black Prince (d. 1376) = Joan of Kent
RICHARD II (1377-1399)..
(3) Lionel, Duke of Clarence, ancestor of EDWARD IV in the female line.
(4) John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, ather of HENRY IV.
(5) Edmund, Duke of York, great-grandfather of EDWARD IV.
(6) Thomas, Duke of Gloucester.
(Edward III had fourteen children in all.)

CHAPTER IV

THE ANGEVINS, OR PLANTAGENETS

1154–1399

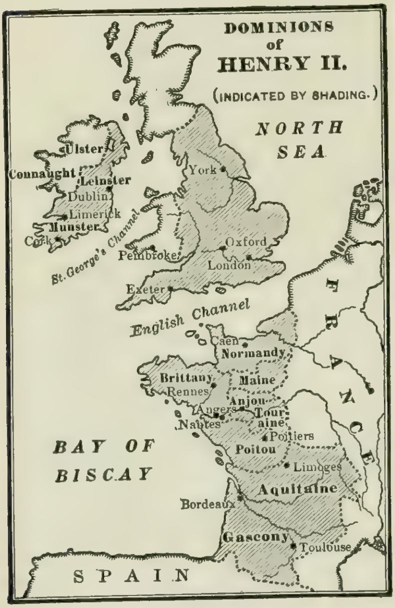
1. HENRY II. 1154–1189

48. **The first Angevin king.**—The father of Henry II was Geoffrey of Anjou, and from his name, Henry and his descendants are called the Angevins. Another name, or nickname, that of "Plantagenet," was given them because Geoffrey was accustomed to wear in his cap a sprig of the yellow-blossomed broom plant, whose French name is *plante-gênet*. When Henry came to the throne, he ruled over more territory than any previous king of England. He had received wide domains in France from his father and his mother and with his wife; and as these territories were close together, the whole western half of that country was under his control, in addition to all of England.

HENRY II

When Stephen died, Henry was in Normandy, and it was six weeks before the people had a chance to see their new ruler. When they did see him, they were well pleased. He was young, brave and determined. His body was like iron, and he could bear any amount of fatigue. It was a hard undertaking to bring order to the kingdom after years of lawlessness, but Henry set about his task resolutely at the very beginning of his reign.

49. **Henry's reforms.** — England was in a wretched condition. During the reign of Stephen, as has been said, the barons, in disregard of the law, had built for themselves castles, and, securely protected by the strong walls, had cruelly oppressed the people. As Henry was determined to make all men obey the law, the first thing for him to do was to tear down these castles; and tear them down he did, several hundred of them. Without a castle, a baron had very little more power than any other rich man; the people rejoiced when they saw the forces of the king demolishing the strongholds that had caused so much suffering, and letting the light and air into the horrible dungeons where prisoners had endured such agonies.


DOMINIONS of HENRY II.
(INDICATED BY SHADING.)

Other reforms were introduced by Henry to lessen the power of the barons. Under the feudal system, every man who held land from the king was required to do military service. Henry was at war on the continent and required a large number of soldiers. But the English barons were not willing to leave their own country in order to take part in a war which concerned only the French dominions of the crown, and, moreover, the king could not compel them either to serve or to provide soldiers for more than forty days in any one year. They were quite willing, therefore, to accept Henry's proposal that, instead of serving in person or providing soldiers, they should pay to the king a tax called *scutage* or shield-money, that is, a sum sufficient to pay the hire of as many knights or soldiers as, under the feudal law, they were compelled to provide. By this means the king had at his command a large body of troops who would serve wherever and as long as he pleased, and the barons became less used to serving in war.

Henry weakened still further the power of the barons by arming the people. Every freeman was compelled to provide himself with armour and weapons according to his station. This was the old Anglo-Saxon system, which had enabled Harold to raise a large army in six days. That the king should thus put arms in the hands of all the freemen of England, showed that he did not intend to depend, for the maintenance of his power. either upon the barons or upon his own hired troops.

A court is a means of securing to every man that which rightfully belongs to him, and of fixing the punishment of those who break the laws. In the time of the Norman kings the county or shire court had become the most important. The chief lords of the country served as judges, and they were assisted by the king's sheriff, whose duty it was to see that justice was meted out to the offender. In the troubled times of the preceding reign, the barons had, in many places, taken the place of the king's sheriffs and had conducted the courts for their own benefit. Many of the unfortunate people who fell into their hands were fined, whether guilty or innocent, and the fine went to the baron instead of to the king. Henry put a stop to these evils by carrying out more fully a practice that his grandfather, Henry I, had begun. He divided the kingdom into circuits and appointed men, called "the king's judges," whose duty it was to go through the country hearing the suits of the people and punishing criminals. These judges, as representatives of the king, did not fear to enter the estates and castles of the proudest nobles in the land. The feudal courts held by the barons were restricted, and the people soon came to have the greatest respect for the circuit courts.

In early Saxon days, if a man wished to prove himself guiltless of a crime with which he was charged, he was compelled to swear to his own innocence, and to bring forward a number of his neighbours who would take a similar oath. If he could not procure such evidence, other means were resorted to for determining his guilt or innocence; he was required to plunge his arm into boiling water, or to carry a red-hot iron so many paces. If, after a certain number of days, the arm was well, or was healing healthily, the man was declared to be innocent, because it was thought that God had protected him. In the same belief that God would clear the innocent, the Normans had introduced the usage of requiring two men who had differed, to fight a duel. In addition to these methods, Henry revived or established an agency which we still use,—the grand jury. Wherever the king's judges held court, the sheriff would summon a number of men to form a jury. It was their duty to bring before the judges every person in their district who was accused of having committed a crime. As a further means of determining whether the accused was guilty or not, he was to be sent to the ordeal by cold water. This trial consisted in throwing the accused into a pond; if he floated without swimming, he was held guilty. In later times it became and still is the duty of a jury to pronounce an accused person guilty or innocent according to the evidence brought before them. Such a jury is called a trial jury.

50. **Relations of church and state.**—It had for some time been the custom in England for a clergyman, if accused of having done wrong, to be tried by the church courts, and not by the regular courts of justice. The penalties inflicted by the king's courts were very severe. The clergy did not approve of these cruel punishments, and protected as many people from them as possible. Henry was resolved that when it came to a question of keeping the law of the land, the clergy should not have any special privileges. At a meeting of the Great Council held at Clarendon in 1164, a document, known as the Constitutions of Clarendon, was agreed to; it declared, among other things, that clergy

who offended against the law should be punished by the king's courts. It was necessary, however, to secure, on behalf of the church, the consent of the Archbishop of Canterbury, otherwise the clergy would not obey the decrees.

The Archbishop of Canterbury at this time was Thomas à Becket, a man of great talent, great wealth, and great love of luxury and display. He had been chancellor of the realm, and had strongly supported the king in all his plans. Henry naturally thought that Becket would assist him in his contest with the clergy; much to his surprise, the new archbishop resolutely refused to do so, and strongly upheld the privileges of the church. The king was angry, and made up his mind to proceed without the consent of the archbishop. The quarrel then became so bitter that Becket was forced to flee to the continent.

Henry desired that his son should succeed him without opposition, and, therefore, he had the young prince crowned and associated with him in the government. It had become a custom for the Archbishop of Canterbury to perform the ceremony of coronation, and when in his exile Becket learned that the young prince had been crowned by the Archbishop of York, he felt this as another insult, and straightway brought it about that the Pope excommunicated several councillors whom Becket thought in fault. Even after this there was so much of a reconciliation between Becket and Henry that the archbishop returned to England. Henry was in France, and the next news brought him was that Becket had persuaded the Pope to excommunicate several bishops who had assisted at the coronation of the prince. When Henry was really angry, he was almost like a madman; and now he called out in a fury: "Will no one deliver me from this insolent priest?" He always declared that he

Thomas à Becket

did not mean that he wished Becket to be murdered, but there were four men who took this meaning from his words. They set out for Canterbury and struck down the archbishop in the church. The whole land was aghast. Henry was frightened, and he was sincerely sorry for the words that he had spoken in his anger, and whose consequences had been so far beyond his thought. He gave up nearly every point upon which he and the dead archbishop had differed. The Pope believed in his penitence and granted him forgiveness.

But not long after all kinds of troubles came upon the land,—invasion, revolt, tempest. It was generally believed that this was in consequence of the murder, and that the king must do more to prove his penitence. Henry mounted his horse and rode to the town of Canterbury. Then he put on a woollen shirt and a coarse cloak and walked barefoot over the rough stones of the streets to Becket's tomb in the cathedral. Here he knelt and prayed. Then bishops, abbots, and the eighty monks took a rod, each in turn, and the king now dropped his cloak and received a blow from the hands of every one present. A very beautiful shrine was erected at Canterbury, and here the bones of Becket were placed. So greatly was his memory revered that many churches throughout Europe begged for even the smallest relic of him, and many thousands of people came from far-away countries to kneel before his shrine.

51. **The English in Ireland.**—At the time when Henry's messengers were in Rome trying to secure pardon for their sovereign, the king himself thought that with all the hatred aroused against him, it would be as well for him to be out of the country, and he was glad that it seemed necessary for him to go to Ireland. In the early centuries of the Christian era Ireland was more civilized than England, and sent missionaries to the surrounding countries. Her monasteries were famous for the learning of the monks and for their beautiful coloured manuscripts. The country, however, had not got beyond the stage of tribal government. The island was divided into provinces, and there was one chief, or king,

for each province, and also one to whom the others paid some general deference as to an overlord. Danes and Welshmen had landed in Ireland and had made settlements on the coast; but these were small, and at the time of Henry II the whole island was torn with domestic strife.

Henry was anxious to add Ireland to his possessions. An opportunity soon offered itself, when Dermot, the Irish king of Leinster, who had been driven from his kingdom, came over to ask help from Henry. Strongbow, an English noble, returned with Dermot, and together they won many victories over the Irish clans. When Dermot died, Strongbow, who had married his daughter, succeeded to his power. It did not please Henry to have one of his subjects king of Ireland, and in 1172 he crossed the Channel himself with a large force. Strongbow paid homage to him and many other Irish rulers submitted. Indeed, Henry might have conquered the whole island had he not been called home by rebellions which were aided by his sons and his queen, Eleanor. Prince John, who during his father's life had no lands to rule and was, therefore, called Lackland, was sent to Ireland as governor. But he mocked the native chiefs who came to dine with him, and even pulled their bushy beards. Such a prince had no power to draw Irish and English together, and very soon John was forced to leave. For many years after this the native Irish were at constant war among themselves and with the small English settlements along the coast which were known as "The English Land."

52. **Henry's sons rebel.**—It seemed to be the fate of the Norman kings to meet nothing but ingratitude from their children. Two of Henry's sons, Henry, the eldest, and Geoffrey, died before their father, after causing him a great deal of trouble; but the two other sons, Richard and John, were as troublesome as their brothers. They rebelled, and with the king of France they planned an attack upon England. Henry was then ill, but when he was told of this revolt, he said: "I have one comfort left. My son John has never conspired against me. Give me the list of the rebels." Behold, at the very head of the list was

the name of Prince John. "Let things go as they will," said the broken-hearted king. "I have nothing more to care for." Two days later he died.

53. **The Holy Grail.**—In the time of Henry a new writer appeared, one Walter Map, who wrote on the same subject that was chosen by Geoffrey of Monmouth, but Map made poems of the old crude legends. One of his stories, that of the Holy Grail, came from the continent. The Grail was the cup used by Christ at the Last Supper. The legend is that it was carried by Joseph of Arimathea to Glastonbury in England, and there it was to remain as long as its guardians were pure and good. At last the time came when one was unworthy of his trust, and the cup vanished, though it might sometimes be seen by those who were holy in thought and deed. In the stories of King Arthur it was a favourite quest of the knights to ride the world over and meet all hardship and all adventure in the hope of once having a glimpse of the sacred vision. The story is a very beautiful one, and it had a strong influence on the people of the time.

SUMMARY

Henry II ruled his dominions well. He tore down the castles of the tyrannous barons, instituted shield-money, armed the people, and reformed the courts of justice. In his reign he instituted what developed into trial by jury, and strove to treat all men as equal before the law. At this time the English conquest of Ireland began.

2. Richard I. 1189–1199

54. **Richard ascends the throne.**—Richard, the third son of Henry, came to the throne without opposition, although his elder brother Geoffrey had left an infant son. He was not a good king, and his only notion of ruling a country was to extort as much money from it as possible; yet, because he was a brave knight, the people could not praise him enough. They called him "Cœur de Lion," or the "Lion-Hearted," and were never tired of singing

songs about him and his warlike deeds. He reigned ten years, but only a few months of that time was he in England. All his early life he had spent in France, and he could not even speak the English language.

55. **Richard as a crusader.**—When King Henry II died, Philip, King of France, and Leopold, Duke of Austria, were planning to go on a crusade. Richard wished to go with them, and no sooner had he been crowned than he set to work to raise the necessary funds. He taxed his people severely, extorted money from the Jews, sold bishoprics and other offices to any one that would pay for them, and granted various privileges to the towns for large amounts of gold. This was to the advantage of the towns, as each new privilege bought of the king was described in writing, and the writing was signed by him, so that every bit of parchment that a town gained made it a little more free than it had been before.

The three young rulers set out on the third crusade with a great flourish of banners and long trains of followers; but they had not been many weeks in the Holy Land before Philip began to feel that Richard was gaining all the glory from the expedition. Moreover, now that Richard was king, he was not so yielding as he had been when Philip was helping him to conspire against his father. The result was that Philip went home and left Richard to get along as best he could. Then Richard quarrelled with Leopold, who abandoned the expedition in a rage. The English king had not men enough to conquer the Saracens, so he, too, had to turn back, filled with sorrow that he had not been able to accomplish his quest.

56. **Richard's return to England.**—In returning overland through Austria, Richard fell into the hands of his enemy, Duke Leopold. In those days it was a piece of rare good fortune to capture a king. Leopold turned his prisoner over to his superior lord, the German Emperor, who locked him up in a strong castle until his subjects in England should pay a heavy ransom for him.

During Richard's absence there had grown up serious trouble between the barons and Hubert Walter, whom he had left as his representative. The king of France had conspired with Prince John and several of the most powerful barons to keep the king a prisoner and to place John upon the throne. When Richard at last found his way to England, civil war had broken out; but so great was the dread of his prowess as a warrior, that the mere report of his arrival scattered John's followers at once. Richard was not revengeful; he scarcely deigned to punish the leaders, and he forgave his brother for his treason. After a two months' stay in his kingdom, he gathered his soldiers together and sailed away to France to war against Philip, his former ally in the crusade.

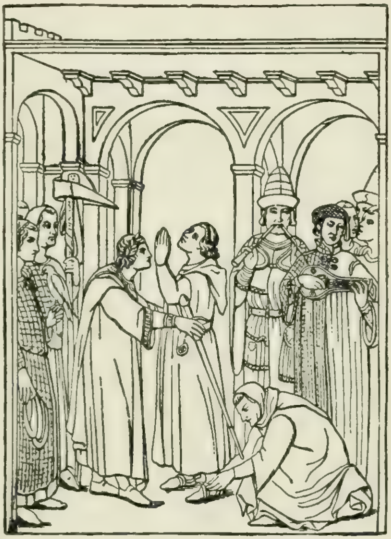
57. **The last days of Richard.**—The remainder of Richard's reign is a tedious account of treaties, truces, and alliances which were broken as soon as made. Richard, however, held all his provinces. In 1199 he besieged a castle held by one of his nobles who refused to surrender a treasure he had found. An archer shot the king from the walls of the castle. Very soon the castle surrendered, and the archer was brought before the dying king. "How have I harmed you that you should kill me?" said Richard. The young archer said, "My lord king, you killed my father, you killed my two brothers, and you meant to kill me. Revenge yourself on me as you will." Richard forgave him, but in spite of this the youth was put to a cruel death.

58. **Progress of the people.**—During Richard's long absence from England, the people made great progress in the art of carrying on their own government. Under the rule of Hubert Walter, the king's minister, or "justiciar," as he was then called, they were encouraged and trained in this respect. He taught them to choose assessors to levy and collect taxes, and to choose juries for the courts and representatives to transact any business that was required to be done. He thus prepared the people to take a more active part in the government of England.

59. **Knighthood and chivalry.**—The ideal gentleman of the time of Richard I was the knight. He must serve a long apprenticeship in some friendly castle; first, as a page, whose business it was, above all things, to learn to be obedient

and courteous. Then he became a squire, and his duty was to attend upon the lord of the castle, to carve his meat and to fill his wine-cup, to carry his shield or helmet, to give him a lance if his was broken in a tournament, to help him to mount if he was thrown from his horse in his heavy armour, and to drag him out of battle if he was wounded.

After seven years as a squire, he himself might become a knight, but he must first spend a day and a night in a church, fasting and praying. Then, in the presence of his friends and others, he solemnly promised to be loyal to the king, to defend the church, and to protect every lady that might need his aid. After he had promised, some lady of high rank buckled on his spurs and girded on a sword that had been blessed by the priest. Then the king or some noble struck him lightly on the shoulder with the flat of the sword, saying, "In the name of God, Saint Michael, and Saint George, I dub thee knight. Be brave, ready, and loyal." Young noblemen became knights as a matter of course, and no one thought highly of even a king unless he had all the knightly virtues and accomplishments.



A SQUIRE BECOMING A KNIGHT

In some ways knighthood was good. Men were more interested in fighting than in anything else, and this training taught them not to be so brutal in their fighting, to be generous to their enemies, to be courteous to women, to respect age and authority, and to care for music and poetry. On the other hand, the knight was not required to be courteous to people of lower rank than himself, and he was as rough as ever when he was dealing with those whom he thought his inferiors.

To give the young men practice in the use of arms, the tournament was made by Richard of great importance in England. This was a mock battle fought by mounted knights in full armour, but generally with blunted weapons. A large field was levelled and fenced in, called the "lists." Two companies of knights would then be chosen, and these would take their places at opposite ends of the lists. At a given signal they charged, meeting in the centre with a terrible shock, the object of each knight being to unhorse and disable his adversary. Those knights who were unhorsed were allowed to continue the combat on foot with swords until one side yielded. The victors' names were then proclaimed by a herald, and they received prizes from the hands of the lady who had been chosen queen of the tournament. Sometimes two champions would joust by themselves, and then the victor would fight any one who chose to dispute his championship.

SUMMARY

The knight was the ideal gentleman of the time, and Richard was the ideal knight. The story of his reign circles around his career as a crusader. To raise money for the crusade, he sold many privileges to the wealthy towns, so that at the end of his reign of ten years they held as their most valued possessions charters which secured to them a great increase of liberty.

3. JOHN. 1199–1216

60. **The loss of the French provinces.**—Richard had left no children, and now John, the youngest son of Henry II became king. The lawful heir to the throne was not John, but Arthur, Duke of Brittany, the son of his elder brother Geoffrey. Richard had wished Arthur to succeed him, but

he was only a boy, and the old Saxon custom of electing from the royal family a man who could lead in battle, prevailed. John was so thoroughly hated in France that the people refused to acknowledge him and supported the claim of Arthur. As a vassal of the king of France, Arthur called upon his lord to protect his rights in the French provinces, and King Philip placed an army at his disposal. In the war that followed, Arthur was captured, and is said to have been murdered by his uncle. Certain it is that he disappeared and was not heard of afterwards.

Whether John committed the murder or not, Philip accused him of it and summoned him to Paris to answer for the death of Arthur. According to the feudal law, as John and Arthur were both his vassals, so far as their French provinces were concerned, Philip had a right to try John in his own court. As John refused to appear, Philip declared his estates forfeited, and immediately took possession of Anjou, Normandy, and the other provinces north of the Loire which had belonged to the English king. When the news was brought to John that Philip was taking one castle after another, and that the people were accepting his rule, he said, "Let Philip go on; whatever he takes, I shall retake in a single day." By and by he tried, but his army was defeated in 1214 at the battle of Bouvines in Flanders. By this battle England and Normandy became separated.

Since the Norman conquest, there had been two races in England, Normans and English; henceforth there was to be but one. There had been two languages, but from this time they gradually began to blend. The proud Norman could no longer point to the despised English as a conquered race, for his own country had now been conquered, and he must call himself an Englishman. "Thus the two races, so long hostile, found at last that they had common interests and common enemies."

61. **John's quarrel with the church.**—John's second trouble was with the church. The Archbishop of Canterbury had died, and the king and the clergy disagreed as to who should be his successor. The Pope suggested Stephen

Langton, a learned and pious Englishman then at Rome. The clergy agreed and Langton was consecrated.

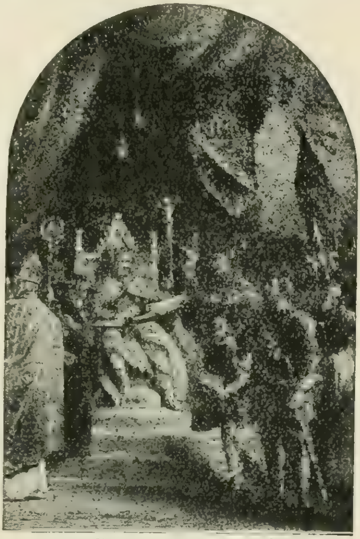
But John refused to allow Langton to land in England, and began to plunder the monks. He drove many of them from their monasteries and compelled them to leave the country. The Pope then, in 1208, laid England under an interdict; that is to say, he forbade the clergy to perform any church service. When the appointed day came the churches were instantly closed. Only the most necessary sacraments were given. No marriage service was performed, and the dead had to be buried without a prayer in unhallowed ground. The sudden cutting off of all forms of religion filled the people with horror. John, however, was not moved, and he took especial pleasure in seizing the property of all the clergy who obeyed the interdict.

When the interdict had lasted a year, the Pope excommunicated the king. When even this failed to move John, the Pope threatened to declare the throne vacant, to absolve the people from their oath of allegiance, and to give the kingdom to Philip, king of France. Philip quickly gathered an army to make good his claim.

Then, at last, John saw that he must yield. He knew that he could not depend on his own army. He knelt at the feet of the Pope's legate and took the crown from his head. By this act he gave his kingdom to the Pope. He then took the same oath to the Pope that vassals took to their lords, and received his crown again, on condition that he pay to the Pope annually the sum of one thousand marks. Langton was received as archbishop and the property of the monks was restored. Philip, who had already met defeat off the coast of Flanders, was compelled to give up his idea of invasion.

62. **The Great Charter, 1215.**—It was just after these events that John tried to regain his French provinces north of the Loire, and lost the battle of Bouvines. From the beginning of his reign, John had cruelly oppressed all classes, and now his tyranny grew worse than ever. The barons knew that they could depend upon the support of the people, and were already planning to assert their rights. In 1213 Langton

proposed to them that John be asked to reissue the charter given by Henry I; but nothing was done. The next year, however, the barons met in the church at Bury St. Edmunds, in Suffolk, and one by one they swore at the altar that if the king did not grant their request they would begin war against him. When the charter was presented to the king by a large number of barons, he turned pale and trembled as he looked into the stern and resolute faces before him. "Give me till Easter to think about this," he said. The barons understood him, and when they presented the charter again, at Oxford, they had two thousand armed knights at their back. Langton read aloud the demands of the people, which ended with the sentence, "And if these claims are not immediately granted, our arms shall do us justice."



John Signing Magna Carta

John angrily refused to sign the charter. The barons at once levied war against him, calling themselves "the army of God and of the Holy Church." Robert FitzWalter was elected commander, and London opened her gates to the army. When John saw that further delay meant the loss of his crown, he asked the leaders to name a day and place where he could meet them.

"Let the day," they replied, "be the 15th of June and the place Runnymede." And there on the Thames near London the barons met the king with a few followers, and compelled him to sign the Magna Carta, or Great Charter, which became the foundation stone of English liberty. It has been confirmed by more than thirty kings and Parliaments since that time, and is still considered the most important document in the history of the English people.

63. **Provisions of the Charter.**—In the charter the king agreed, among many other things, to levy no taxes without the consent of the Great Council of the kingdom. This did not mean that he was to give up his ancient feudal rights, but that he was not to go beyond those rights. No freeman was to be outlawed or imprisoned, or to have his property taken from him, except by the judgment of a lawful court where the jury would be men of his own rank. Church lands were not to be unjustly taxed, nor was the king to interfere with the clergy in their right to elect from among themselves such church dignitaries as bishops and archbishops. Justice was not to be delayed or bought or sold, and assize courts were to be held regularly four times a year in each county. The king's foreign soldiers were to be sent out of the country. Finally, the charter provided that five and twenty barons should be chosen who were to see that the king kept his promises; and in case he did not they were to seize his castles and lands, and to wage war against him until right was done.

64. **Final troubles and death of John.**—The king had no mind to live up to such promises as these. He had agreed to dismiss his foreign troops, but the ink on the charter was scarcely dry when he hired more men and set out into the north of England to punish the barons who had led the movement against him. And the barons did not suffer alone. Never, since the days of the Conqueror, were such horrors known in England. People were murdered, tortured, and plundered. Castles, cities, and even the humble homes of the poor were burned. In the morning, John himself applied the torch to the home where he had slept at night.

The barons had in the meantime invited the king of France to come to their help with an army, promising in return the crown of England to his son Louis. The young prince came and was laying siege to some castles held by the retainers of John, when suddenly matters were brought to a standstill by the death of the king. As his army, in its career of murder and plunder, was crossing the Wash, the tide suddenly rose and carried away his baggage, including his jewels and a large amount of money. His rage at this misfortune made him ill, and a few days later he died.

SUMMARY

John's supposed murder of his nephew brought about the loss of the French lands, a loss that was a gain, for the interest of the Norman barons became more fully centred in England, and they began to see that what was to the advantage of the English was also to their advantage. John's tyranny and injustice led to revolt on the part of the barons, and his quarrel with the church gave to the barons a fearless leader in Archbishop Langton. The result of the struggle was that John was forced to sign Magna Carta or the Great Charter. John broke his promises, and, with hired troops, waged war on the barons; in the midst of the struggle he died.

4. HENRY III. 1216–1272

65. **The child king.**—The only member of the royal family left to inherit the crown was a boy named Henry, who was but nine years old. Before this time it had never occurred to any one that it would answer at all to choose a child for king; but now the English must either choose him, or else take some one not a member of the family that had ruled them so long. It was necessary to come to a decision quickly, as Louis with a French army was still in England, and expecting to secure the throne. Both the barons and the clergy rallied around the youthful prince, who was at once crowned king. There was no special trouble in driving out the French, and matters in general went on very well under the rule of the Great Council until Henry came of age in 1227 and took charge of the government.

66. **Henry's government.**—As soon as Henry had full power in his own hands, he began the old practice of taxing the people without consulting their willingness in the matter. He had married a French princess, and partly for this reason, and partly because of his mother's influence, he

showed great favour to foreigners. The best offices in England, both in church and state, were given to Frenchmen, and immense sums were lavished on them. Henry would gratify his desire for display whether his subjects were pleased or not, and extravagant amounts were spent in mere wasteful show and in attempts to regain his father's possessions in France. As a result he was always in need, and was continually demanding money from the people.

If Henry had been a king of whom the English people could have been proud, they would have given to him as generously as they did to Richard; but his government was weak, he had never won glory in war, and Englishmen began to realize how foolish it was to make themselves poor that such a king might have money to throw away. The people were long-suffering, but whenever they seemed ready to make a stand, the king would yield and would promise whatever they asked. Perhaps he really meant to keep his promises, but he was so weak that he broke them at the first temptation. At last, after Henry had been on the throne for over forty years, the moment came when the people would bear no more.

67. **The Provisions of Oxford.**—In 1258 there was a failure of crops in the land, owing to continued heavy rains, and many thousands of people died of starvation. In the midst of this general distress, Henry demanded large sums of money to be used in endeavouring to make his son king of Sicily. This was more than the country would stand. The Great Council was called together to consider the condition of the realm. When Henry entered the room, he saw that all the barons wore their armour. He was frightened, and gave his assent to all the Council asked. A number of resolutions, known as the Provisions of Oxford, were drawn up, and were agreed to by Henry. The chief feature of these resolutions was the appointment of a committee of barons to supervise the actions of the king. But Henry soon broke his promise, and the barons determined to compel him to yield to their will. They raised an army, defeated the royal forces at Lewes in 1264, and captured both Henry and his son Edward.

68. **The beginning of the House of Commons.**—The leader of the barons at Lewes was Simon de Montfort, a Frenchman by birth, but an Englishman at heart. He possessed large estates in England, and had married a sister of the king. Earl Simon was a soldier and a statesman of the highest order, and was popularly known, on account of his strict justice and moral worth, as "Sir Simon the Righteous." Some of the barons had fought against the king for selfish reasons, but Simon was a true lover of his country and insisted that the people should be represented in the government, so that whatever was done would receive the support of the whole nation.

As the barons were not fighting to dethrone Henry, but to compel him to treat his subjects fairly, it was determined in 1265, the year after the battle of Lewes, to call a Parliament in the name of the king. Simon's plan was carried out, and not only were the barons and clergy summoned, but also writs were issued to certain cities and boroughs, asking each of them to send two representatives, and two knights were summoned from each shire. This was the first time that the commons of England had been invited with the barons and clergy to discuss great affairs of state. The Parliament did no work of importance, but the people had been taught by Simon how they might exercise their power. This was the beginning of the House of Commons of to-day.

But the king's supporters had not laid down their arms. On the other hand, many of Simon's supporters among the barons were afraid that he was becoming too powerful. What they desired was a forceful and patriotic king who could rule by himself, and not a king ruled by Sir Simon, be he ever so righteous. Prince Edward had been held as a hostage after the battle of Lewes, but he escaped from his guardians. Joining his forces to those of the dissatisfied barons, he attacked Simon's party at a disadvantage at Evesham in 1265 and utterly defeated it. When the earl saw the great array led by the prince, he said, "They are approaching with wisdom; let us commend our souls to God, for our bodies are Edward's." He asked no quarter, but died with his son, sword in hand, in a little valley where the carnage was thickest.

Seven years after the battle of Evesham, Henry died. His life was free from the vices that degraded King John, but he was an incompetent ruler, and did not keep faith with his people.

69. **The Friars and their charitable work.**—It was in Henry's reign that the Begging Friars, followers of St. Francis and St. Dominic, known as the Franciscans and the Dominicans, made their way into England. Most of the earlier monks had shut themselves up in monasteries where they devoted themselves to learning and to the salvation of their own souls; but these new brothers went among the humblest people, tending the sick, teaching the ignorant, and reforming the vile. The unselfish lives and splendid devotion of the friars won the respect of all classes.

Dominican and Franciscan Friars

SUMMARY

Just as the wickedness of John aroused the opposition that resulted in Magna Carta, so the folly and extravagance of Henry III led to the representation of the people in Parliament. By the efforts of Simon de Montfort, citizens and country gentlemen, as well as barons and clergy, were asked to meet to discuss the affairs of the nation. From this beginning the House of Commons developed. The Begging Friars came to England in this reign.

5. Edward I. 1272—1307

70. **Edward becomes king.**—The English people rejoiced to have Edward for their king. He had opposed their champion, but they felt that he really sympathized with them and had fought only to support his father. Whether he was dead or alive, they did not know, since he had gone to the far-away East on a crusade; but as soon as Henry III was buried, the chief men of the kingdom met in Westminster Abbey and took a solemn oath that they would be true to Edward. When the king returned two years later, they gave him a royal welcome.

Edward was a grown-up man when he became king. He was tall and commanding in appearance, a superb horseman and accomplished in the use of weapons. But more than this, he was wise and prudent in his actions, seldom lost control of his temper, and was faithful to his friends and to his people. His wife, Eleanor, daughter of the king of Castile, was worthy of her husband. When she died in the north of England in 1290, her body was brought to Westminster for burial. At each halting place of the funeral procession Edward caused to be set up a richly ornamented cross, as a witness of his affection. Three of these crosses, one of which is Charing Cross in London, are still preserved.

71. **Gains from the crusades.**—Edward was the last king of England who took part in a crusade. Although the crusaders did not gain possession of the Holy Land, yet these expeditions were of great value. The crusaders themselves were brought in contact with a civilization which was different from their own, and from which there was much to learn in the way of culture and refinement. They learned to use new words and to think new thoughts. Men are often uncharitable just because they are ignorant, and the crusaders learned to look more kindly upon even the Saracens with whom they had fought, for they had seen that their heathen foes were often brave and truthful.

One great change that the crusades helped to bring about in England was in the ownership of land. Much of the land of the kingdom had been in the hands of a very few men, who were called lords of the manor, because they owned large farms, or manors. People living on the manors were not permitted to leave them, and were obliged to work so many days every year for the owner. When these lords wanted funds for a crusade, they were glad to accept money instead of work, and sometimes they would allow the workmen to buy a piece of land for themselves. The result was that at the end of the crusades many owned land, and, of course, these people were especially anxious to have a good government, for they began to feel that if they owned a piece of England, then what was good for England was a gain to them.

72. **Edward's policy.**—Although Edward had slain Earl Simon at Evesham, he continued Simon's policy of keeping foreigners out of the country, and of giving all classes of the people a share in the government. In this way he enacted many excellent laws to which the people gave a willing obedience.

The civil wars of Henry III had left the land infested by bands of robbers. A man's life was not safe if he travelled alone, and even the walled towns had to be carefully guarded. Edward ordered that every man from fifteen to sixty years of age should provide himself with arms, and all were bound to pursue and capture lawbreakers. The trees and bushes were cleared away from the sides of the roads, in order that travellers might not be waylaid by robbers, and much of this evil soon came to an end.

An important law called the Statute of Mortmain, was enacted by Edward. Lands belonging to the church were not subject to certain feudal dues, and as a large part of England was now in the hands of the church, the revenue from the land was much less than it had formerly been. The Statute of Mortmain forbade the giving of any land to the church, either by will or during the lifetime of the owner, without the consent of the king.

73. **The Model Parliament.**—In 1295 Edward was in need of money to carry on his wars. In order to raise this money

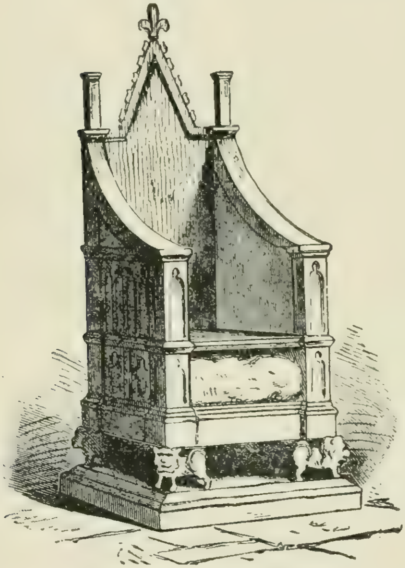
he called together a full Parliament of the realm. As he said, "What touches all should be approved by all." The Parliament was attended by all the bishops, abbots, earls and barons, besides two knights from each shire, and two citizens from every important borough or town. The clergy of each cathedral and parish also sent a representative. This was called the "Model Parliament," and is important because it served as a model for later Parliaments.

This Parliament voted the taxes to carry on the war. The war, however, was so expensive that, two years later, Edward called for more money, this time without the Parliament voting it. This arbitrary taxation very much offended the people, especially the barons, who refused to go with the king to fight in France. The clergy and the nobles now joined hands, and the king was compelled to grant a "confirmation" of the previous charters, and to agree never to take any tax from the whole country without the consent of Parliament.

74. **The conquest of Wales, 1277-1283.**—Edward was a soldier, and during his reign waged many wars, principally with Wales and with Scotland. The Welsh were descendants of the early Britons whom the Saxons had driven to the west; and, although they had often been obliged to pay tribute to the king of England and to acknowledge him as overlord, they had never really submitted, nor parted with their independence. When Edward summoned Llewellyn, Prince of Wales, to his coronation, the Welsh prince refused to attend, but a fleet and an army soon obliged him to submit. Six years later news came that large bands of Welsh had attacked the western counties and were murdering the people and carrying away their property. War began again and was now pressed vigorously. Llewellyn was slain, his brother David was put to death as a traitor, and Wales was annexed to England.

The Welsh had an old tradition that none but a native born prince should ever rule over them. Edward told them that he would give them a prince who had been born in their land and who had never spoken a word of English. Behold, when their prince was presented to them, he was Edward's baby son, who had been born in Wales a few months before, and was too young to speak a word of any language. He was called Prince of Wales, and that is why the eldest son of the English sovereign usually receives that title, though he has no more power over Wales than over any other part of the kingdom.

75. **The attempt to conquer Scotland.**—Edward also attempted to conquer Scotland, but this proved a far harder task than to conquer Wales. The Scottish king had died, leaving no direct heir, and several distant relatives claimed the throne. These agreed to submit the dispute to Edward, but he refused to act unless he were acknowledged as overlord. Although the commons would not consent, the barons and clergy did. Edward decided in favour of John Balliol, though Robert Bruce had a claim that many thought equally good.



The Coronation Chair

Soon Edward began to act so much as if he himself were king of Scotland that even Balliol rebelled. Edward invaded Scotland in 1296, dethroned Balliol, and compelled the Scots to submit to his rule. When he went home, he carried with him to London a stone upon which the kings of Scotland had always sat when they were crowned. It is called the Stone of Scone, and the people believed that it was the very one that Jacob had for a pillow when he dreamed of the ladder and the angels. Edward put it into the chair in Westminster Abbey on which the king of England sits at his coronation.

Thinking that Scotland was conquered, Edward went to France to settle with the French king, who was disputing the claim of England to Gascony. But Scotland was not conquered. She waited only for a leader, and soon a leader appeared in the person of Sir William Wallace. At first he does not seem to have had many followers, and the few he had were mostly of the humble class. Gradually his personal bravery drew around him many bold spirits, until he had an army. This army now marched into England and began to lay waste the country. On the approach of the English, Wallace retreated northwards, and made a stand at Stirling. In order to reach him, the English had to cross a narrow bridge and when only half the army was over, Wallace made his attack; the result was a great victory for the Scots.

Six months later Edward returned from France and gathered a large army for the invasion of Scotland. He overtook Wallace at Falkirk in 1298. More than twenty thousand Scots are said to have been slain, and Wallace escaped with only a few followers. He now lived for a time in hiding, a part being spent in France. He returned to Scotland, was betrayed into the hands of the English, and in 1305 was put to death as a traitor. He had failed because the Scottish people were not united. Many of their nobles were of Norman blood, and had little sympathy with the peasant class in their love of freedom. But Wallace had aroused in the Scottish people a spirit of resistance that could not be extinguished even in the midst of defeat.

Robert Bruce, a grandson of Balliol's rival, and the next claimant to the throne of Scotland, was now twenty-three years old. At this time he was living at the court of Edward, but just after the death of Wallace, he escaped to Scotland. He had some quarrel with Comyn, nephew and heir to John Balliol. After bitter words had passed between them, Bruce stabbed his rival in the church at Dumfries. But the Scots so strongly resented the domination of England, that they were ready to overlook the murder as an act of self-defence, and in 1306 Bruce was crowned king. Edward's wrath was terrible. He sent an army into Scotland, and for a time carried all before him. Bruce had to go into hiding, while his wife and daughters fell into Edward's power. The Countess of Buchan, who put the crown on Bruce's head, was closely confined in a wooden cage in a turret of Berwick Castle. Many Scottish nobles who had aided Bruce were hanged. But the Scots were aroused, and a determined and united people are hard to conquer. Bruce was soon in arms again with many followers.

Edward now gathered a great army to crush the Scots. The brave old king, however, was worn out with a life of warfare, and his hopes rested on the Prince of Wales. The royal army moved slowly northwards, but the king grew weaker every day. At last he could advance but two miles daily, and, when near the border, he died. His last wish was that his son should continue the war, and he asked that his body should be carried at the head of the army, so that he might still lead his men against the hated enemy. But the son was not the man to carry on his father's work. He returned to London, and Edward was buried with his forefathers in Westminster Abbey.

76. **Banishment of the Jews.**—Perhaps no one act of Edward brought him so much praise at the time as the cruel expulsion of the Jews. Thus far they had been allowed to live in England, although they were treated with contempt by all classes. The people hated them on account of their nationality, their wealth, the hard bargains they drove, and the high rates of interest they exacted on loans. Edward persecuted them unsparingly, and, finally, in 1290, banished them from England. Thousands of Jews were forced to leave the kingdom. They were allowed to take their personal property, but their houses and lands were seized by the crown.

77. **Literary progress.**—The two centuries that had passed since the battle of Hastings had brought many changes to the language that was spoken in England. The Normans had found it quite worth while to know English, and the English had found it convenient to know French. More

and more, however, people were coming to look upon a knowledge of French as an accomplishment and upon English as the real language of the country. A great many French words had now become part of the English language, but the English did not pronounce them in the French way; and as for the spelling, they were spelled in whatever way came to mind first.

The books that were written were chiefly about England and her history; some of this history is true, and some of it goes back to the half-fabulous days of King Arthur. The unwritten literature, however, is far more attractive. In the time of the earlier kings, the cruel barons had robbed the people so unmercifully that many had abandoned their homes and had gone to live in the forests. Now men began to make ballads about bold Robin Hood, the merry outlaw who took from the rich and gave to the poor, who played pranks on sheriffs and wealthy bishops, but who was always ready to help any one in trouble. It was a long time before the ballads were put in writing, but they were sung throughout the land. Any man who could sing a ballad was ever a welcome guest. People would gather in groups at any time to listen to him. The ballads were on well-known old stories, or on any recent event that struck the fancy of the singer. He would not try to remember how another man had sung the song, but would sing what chanced to come to his own mind, and make up lines whenever he forgot. In this way, the song changed with every singer.

The accounts of early England that were written in this century are interesting; but, even though the monks who wrote them would have been greatly astonished at the thought that their pages of dignified Latin were not so valuable as the songs, it is, after all, these ballads that are the real English literature of the period, the real voice of the masses of the English people.

SUMMARY

One important result of the crusades was that the number of people holding land had greatly increased; another was that new thoughts and a wider knowledge had come to England. In this reign Wales was

conquered; but, owing to the brave leadership of Wallace and then of Bruce, no permanent conquest of Scotland was made. The Jews were expelled from the kingdom. Freedom was gained in the passing of many useful laws and in the representation of all classes in a regularly organized Parliament. English became more and more the language of the people. History was written, but the best English literature of the period was the unwritten ballads.

6. EDWARD II. 1307–1327

78. **Edward II and his favourite.**—Edward II now sat on the throne, but the real ruler of the land was a young Frenchman named Piers Gaveston. This favourite was a foolish, frivolous man; although Edward I and his Parliament had banished him, almost the first thing that the new king did was to call him back. Then Edward had him walk next to himself at the coronation ceremonies, and when he went to France for his bride, he made Gaveston regent during his absence. At last the country could bear with the unworthy favourite no longer, and he was banished. In a short time the king called him back, and proclaimed him a "true and loyal subject." Finally, the barons took matters into their own hands, and put Gaveston to death.

79. **Bannockburn, 1314.**—The old king's dying command to his son was to finish the Scottish war himself, but Edward II appointed a new governor of Scotland and went away to his court in the south. Robert Bruce improved his opportunity. Within a few years he won back everything that Edward I had taken from him, and laid siege to Stirling, the last stronghold of the English across the border. The garrison there agreed to surrender if not relieved by midsummer, 1314. This news at last roused the king, and he led an army against the Scots.

At Bannockburn, Bruce made preparation for the reception of the English by digging great pits in front of his army, in which he placed sharpened stakes, concealing them with a covering of turf. The English archers, as usual, began the battle, but they were poorly supported and were driven off by the Scottish cavalry. Then an English charge over the pitfalls threw the whole English army into confusion. While the knights and the horses were floundering about, wounded by the sharp stakes, a body of Scottish servants and camp followers appeared over the brow of a hill. The English, taking this for a reinforcement, fled in haste, pursued by the Scots, who overtook and slew hundreds in their flight. The English lost ten thousand men and all their baggage and supplies. Edward himself escaped and finally reached London by boat. Although the war went on for many years, the English never again made any serious attempt to conquer Scotland.

ROBERT BRUCE

80. **Edward is deposed.**—Edward had other favourites by this time, and they were as arrogant and offensive as Gaveston. The queen, too, had a favourite, one Mortimer; and these two came over from France with an army and drove the king into Wales. The country had borne all that it could bear. Parliament met, and sent commissioners to the king to demand that he should resign the crown that he had worn so unworthily. Instead of making any defence, the king burst into tears and thanked Parliament most humbly for having chosen his son to take his place. One of the commissioners then said, "In the name of all the people of the land, I renounce the oath of fealty that was made to you."

Edward was taken to a castle and kept in confinement for several months. Then he was secretly murdered, many thought by Mortimer and the queen.

SUMMARY

The real rulers of the land were the unworthy favourites of the king. After the defeat at Bannockburn, Edward gave up the attempt to conquer the Scots. The queen and her favourite drove him into Wales; and, finally, the English people exercised for the first time their right to depose a weak and worthless sovereign.

7. EDWARD III. 1327–1377

81. **The war with Scotland.**—After Edward II was deposed, a regency was appointed to govern the kingdom, as Edward III was only fourteen years old. Mortimer and Isabella, however, were the real rulers.

England had never acknowledged the independence of Scotland, and Bruce now invaded and plundered the northern counties to compel her to do so. Mortimer and Edward led an army against the Scots; but the latter had learned the folly of risking everything in a great battle, and were so rapid in their movements that the English could not come up with them. At last Mortimer and the queen concluded a peace by which the independence of Scotland was acknowledged.

This peace made Mortimer and the queen so unpopular that Edward, three years later, resolved to take over the government himself. Mortimer was arrested and condemned to death by Parliament as a traitor. The queen was imprisoned in her palace and allowed no further part in the government. Edward refused to keep Mortimer's treaty, and, again invading Scotland and defeating the Scottish king, David II, at Halidon Hill, placed Edward Balliol on the throne. David fled to France, but was soon restored to his kingdom by the Scots.

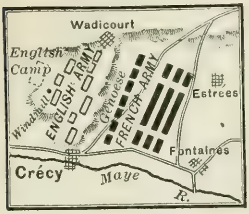
82. **The Hundred Years' War begins.**—In the meantime the relations between England and France were becoming more and more unfriendly. The English kings still held some possessions in France, of which Aquitaine was the chief. The king of France was overlord of these provinces, and for them, under the feudal law, the English kings had to do homage to him. The French king was determined to have complete control of all the provinces in any way subject to France. With the object of weakening the power of the English king, the French had formed an alliance with the Scots and had given them some help in their struggle for independence. Further, during this war the French had seized upon English vessels carrying wool to Flanders. Wool was

the most important export of England; Flanders bought the wool, made fine cloth, and sold it to England. This interruption to trade stopped the work of the Flemish weavers, and seriously interfered with the business of both countries. The French king was also attempting to gain control of Flanders, and if he succeeded, English trade with that country would be crippled.

Philip, king of France, now seized Aquitaine and refused to surrender it to Edward. The English king, on his part, put forth a claim to the throne of France on the ground that he was the rightful heir, as his mother, Isabella, was a sister of the late king, while Philip was only a cousin. The French asserted that, under their law, no woman could either rule in France, or transmit the crown to her son; this, however, Edward refused to admit. The war to secure the throne of France for an English king began in 1338 and lasted, with some intervals, for over one hundred years.

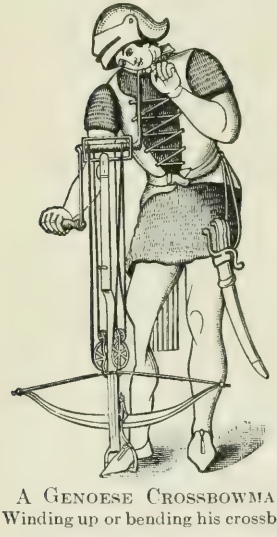
The first battle of the war was for the mastery of the Channel, in order that the wool trade with Flanders might be carried on with safety. The English gathered a strong fleet, and in 1340 attacked the French off Sluys, on the Netherland coast. In the battle that followed, the French were defeated with great loss. No man dared tell the news to Philip until his court jester said, "Those English are terrible cowards." "Why?" said Philip. "Because they were afraid to leap into the sea as our brave French did," said the clown.

Six years later, Edward landed in Normandy, ravaged the country and then began a march across France to join his allies in Flanders. Philip pursued, and the English army awaited attack at Crécy, where in 1346 was fought one of the most famous battles of English history. The French king was depending mainly on his mounted knights, clad in armour, who fought with sword and lance. He had also fifteen thousand Genoese archers, who fought with the crossbow, an awkward weapon, which had to be wound up with wheel and ratchet to set the string every time it was discharged. The English archers, who formed the main body of Edward's army used the long-bow and heavy arrows tipped with barbs of steel. Long practice enabled them to use this weapon with fatal effect at three hundred yards, while at close range the knights' armour was no protection against its deadly force.



Battle of Crécy

The English army was drawn up in three divisions. Two divisions formed the line of battle, and the third was kept in the rear as a reserve. Edward dismounted his knights and placed them among the archers with levelled spears. Philip sent the Genoese crossbowmen forward to open the battle, but a heavy rain had just wet their bowstrings and made their weapons useless. The English, who had kept their bows in leather cases, drove them back with a flight of arrows. "Kill me those scoundrels!" cried Philip, who took their forced retreat for cowardice. The French knights charged upon the poor Genoese and cut them down in order to clear the way for their attack upon the English. On came the knights in a furious assault, each trying to outride the others, in order to be in the van, the place of honour. But they went down by thousands before the archers and spearmen, while the Welsh, with their long knives, went over the field and despatched those who were wounded or entangled by their armour or horses. King Edward's eldest son, the Black Prince, commanded the right wing. In the thick of the fight a messenger came to Edward for assistance.



A Genoese Crossbowman
Winding up or bending his crossbow

"Is the prince dead or wounded?" asked the king.

"No, sire; but he is hard pressed and needs your help."

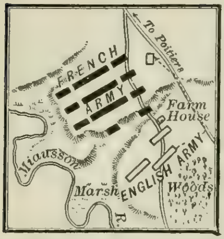
"Then," said the king, "return and tell those who sent you not to send again while my son lives. Command them to let the boy win his spurs!"

When the day of Crécy was over, the English army of less than thirty thousand had defeated the French army, more than three times as numerous, of whom nearly a third were left dead on the field.

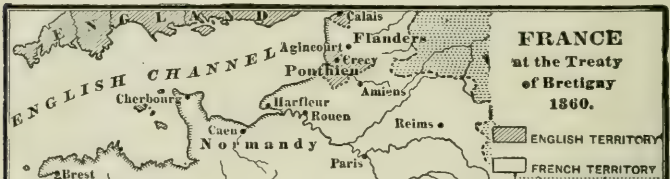
An English Archer

The Scots, according to an agreement made with Philip, now invaded England, but they were defeated at Neville's Cross, and their king, David, was carried off to London, a prisoner. Meanwhile, Edward pushed on to Calais and besieged the town. The brave defenders held out for a whole year, and when they surrendered in 1347, it was only because they were starving. Edward was so angry at the resistance he had met with, that he ordered six of the leading citizens to come to him with ropes about their necks. He intended to hang them, but his wife, Queen Philippa, begged so earnestly for their lives that he released them. He now drove from Calais the Frenchmen who refused to swear allegiance to him, and made it an English colony. The city remained in the possession of England for over two hundred years.

Edward offered to make peace if King John, who had succeeded Philip, would give him the full sovereignty of Aquitaine; but this John refused to do. In 1355 the war was renewed and the Black Prince led a plundering expedition through southern France. The next year he swept through central France and began his return march with eight thousand men guarding his load of plunder. When near Poitiers, south of the Loire, he was overtaken by King John with fifty thousand Frenchmen. With the exception that John dismounted the greater part of his knights, the tactics of Crécy were repeated, with results more disastrous to the French. The English were drawn up on both sides of a long lane, behind hedges which protected them. As the French came charging down the lane, both men and horses were shot down until the remainder stopped and fled in terror. The English charged upon the fugitives, and attacked the French reserve force both in front and in flank. King John was taken prisoner, and the battle was won.



BATTLE OF POITIERS



In 1360 the Peace of Bretigny was made, by which Edward gave up his claim to the French crown, and received full sovereignty over Aquitaine and Calais. King John was to pay a huge sum for his ransom. Three years before this, Edward had acknowledged the independence of Scotland, and had released King David on the promise to pay a ransom of sixty thousand pounds.

The terms of the treaty of Bretigny were not observed and the war again broke out. This time, however, it was very disastrous to the English, for the French, under the leadership of the heroic Bertrand du Guesclin, were everywhere successful. The English were forced to give up all the territory they had gained, with the exception of a few towns along the coast.

83. **England's new idea.**—England was exceedingly proud of the victory at Crécy; but this battle gave her more than glory, it gave her a new idea. When the people saw that the battle of Crécy was won by men who had neither coat of mail, nor spear, nor horse, they discovered that in battle a yeoman was as good as a knight. Before this, people had thought that the only way for poor folk to live was under the protection of a baron or an armed knight. The new idea that had come to England was that even people without horse or armour could protect themselves.

84. **The Black Death.**—This fact alone might not for a long time have made any general change in the way of living; but two or three years later, while people were slowly beginning to take in this new thought, a terrible pestilence, called the Black Death, swept over Europe, coming last of all to England in 1349. It is thought that nearly half of the population died. In some of the cities so many were dead that grass grew in the principal streets; and, in the country districts, matters were even worse, for sometimes nearly all the people on a manor died. What caused the disease is not known, but it was much more severe than it would otherwise have been had not the houses been so dirty and small and dark, with so few windows. Piles of rubbish and puddles of filthy water were allowed to gather just outside the doors. In the city, the streets were narrow, there was no drainage, and there was not even the good air of the country.

85. **Some results of the French wars and the Black Death.** —During the crusades, as has been said, the lords would often allow their tenants, or villeins, as they were called, to pay their dues in money instead of in work. Even then some that might have been free remained on the manor, because, if they went away, there was no work by which they could support themselves, since all the other manors had men enough. People had learned, during the crusades, that a man who was born a villein need not always remain a villein; and since so many had died of the Black Death, there were now always manors that needed workmen. Moreover, Queen Philippa, who was a Fleming, had brought men from Flanders to teach the English how to weave fine woollen cloth; now, if a villein ran away, he could work on a manor for money, or go to a city and learn to weave; moreover, there was an old law by which if he could manage to stay away from the manor for a year and a day, he was free, and could not be obliged to return.

There was so much work to be done and there were so few to do it on the manors to which they belonged, that wages became very high. When Parliament saw how difficult it was to get the labourers to work, a law was passed, called the Statute of Labourers, which provided that men and women under sixty years of age and having no land or means of their own must serve the first employer who offered them work, and that they must take the same wages as before the plague. But as labourers were so scarce, some landlords were willing to pay a little more than the old rate, and then the labourers would often go from parish to parish in search of better wages. Parliament then passed another statute by which a labourer was not allowed to go outside of his own parish, and any that were found roving were to be arrested and branded on the forehead with the letter F, meaning "falsity." Although the law was so severe, it did not prevent many from running away. Some of these fugitives became robbers; many more became beggars. The result of all these measures was to increase the hatred of the peasantry for the landowners.

86. **Death of Edward III.**—While the labour trouble was going on, the reign of the third Edward was drawing to a gloomy close. The Black Prince had met with disaster in the French war, and, after losing many of England's possessions, had come home to die. Good Queen Philippa was dead, and the old king was quite under the influence of bad advisers who plundered him and then left him to die, alone and desolate.

SUMMARY

Edward was forced to acknowledge the independence of Scotland; but he laid claim to the throne of France, and this claim led to the Hundred Years' War. The English won the battles of Crécy and Poitiers, but before the death of the king they had lost almost all of their possessions in France. The victory won by the yeomen at Crécy showed that a villein need not depend upon a noble for protection. The Black Death gave the peasant's work on the land a greatly increased value, while the manufacture of fine woollens in England gave him a greater chance to support himself. Owing to the laws passed by Parliament in the interests of the landowners, there was general discontent among the peasantry at the end of Edward's reign.

8. Richard II. 1377–1399

87. **The Peasants' Revolt.**—Although Edward III left several sons, the crown passed to Richard, the son of the Black Prince. As the young king was only ten years old, the real power was in the hands of a Council appointed by Parliament. A variety of troubles now threatened the kingdom. The French attacked the coast. The Scots, acting with France as usual, plundered the border, and to make matters worse, the peasantry were on the verge of an outbreak.

There were many causes for the great rising of the peasantry in 1381. They were angry at the attempts of the landowners to make them work for small wages and to restrict their freedom. They felt that all their grievances were caused by the ruling classes, who passed laws always in their own interest. At last a tax imposed to meet the cost of the French and Scottish wars brought the discontent to a head. The tax was imposed on all classes, but fell with special hardness on the peasants and the poorer people in the towns. Rebellions broke out in several parts of the kingdom, and for a time the rebels carried all before them.

Near London a vast crowd of peasants gathered under the leadership of Wat Tyler. They released John Ball, a priest who for some years had been preaching to the people, inflaming them against the rich and those in authority, and who had been imprisoned for this. Ball harangued the mob from the famous couplet,—

"When Adam delved and Eve span,
Who was then the gentleman?"

and so excited them that they were ready for any excesses. They marched on London and entered the city. Riot and pillage followed. The king met the mob to discuss their demands. These were that they should be free men; that land should be rented at a uniform rate; that they might buy and sell wherever they chose, and that all who had taken part in the uprising should be pardoned. The king agreed to all these demands; but in the meantime another mob had entered the Tower and had murdered the Archbishop of Canterbury and the treasurer of the kingdom.

The next day the king again met the rebels, and again agreed to their demands. In the midst of the discussion, Tyler threatened to strike the Lord Mayor of London. He was himself struck down, and in a moment his followers were ready to begin a riot. There would probably have been a terrible slaughter if the boy king had not dashed away from his attendants to the front of the mob, and called out, "I am your king, and I will be your leader!"

This bold action of the king so pleased the mob that they returned to their homes well satisfied that they had won the victory. The rebellion in the other parts of the kingdom was sharply suppressed. A few of the leaders were executed, but on the whole there was little bloodshed after the uprising was over. Parliament refused to change the laws, so that for some time the condition of the peasants was but little improved.

88. **John Wycliffe.**—There was one man at this time who made determined efforts to better the condition of the poor. This was John Wycliffe, a priest and a teacher at Oxford University. He had felt that there was much in the church and in the priests that ought to be reformed; and one thing was the lack of the teaching and help that ought to have been given to the humbler people of the land. He formed bands called "Poor Priests" and sent them throughout the country. They wore bright red cloaks and went barefooted, with staff in hand, from village to village, preaching the gospel to the poor. These teachings were gladly accepted by the common people and had a great effect in awakening them to a sense of their condition. The followers of Wycliffe were afterwards known as "Lollards," which means "mumblers of prayers."

John Wycliffe

But Wycliffe will always be remembered, not so much for his connection with the "Poor Priests" as for his translation of the Bible into English. Hundreds of copies were multiplied by hand and scattered among the people.

89. **Geoffrey Chaucer.**—During the reign of Edward III, a priest named William Langland had written a long poem called "Piers Plowman," in which he described the struggles of the poor and their sufferings from cold and hunger. This poem was written in English, and is the first long poem written in such a way as to be at all easily read to-day. But the first English poet is really Geoffrey Chaucer, whose great work, the "Canterbury Tales," entitles him to be known as the "Father of English Poetry."

The book is made up of stories that a band of pilgrims tell in going to and from the shrine of Saint Thomas à

Becket of Canterbury. On this pilgrimage were all sorts of people, a knight, a squire, a monk, a nun, a scholar, a cook, a sailor, a parish priest, and many others; and therefore there are all sorts of tales. In those days it was thought perfectly right for a man to take any story that he had heard, tell it in his own way, and call it his own; Chaucer, accordingly, took the plot of a story from wherever he found it, but it is his way of telling a tale that we like especially. He makes us feel as if we had really seen the people he describes. That Chaucer, who spent much time at court, should have written his poem in English is proof that neither Latin nor French, but English, made richer by many words from the French, had become the literary language of the land.

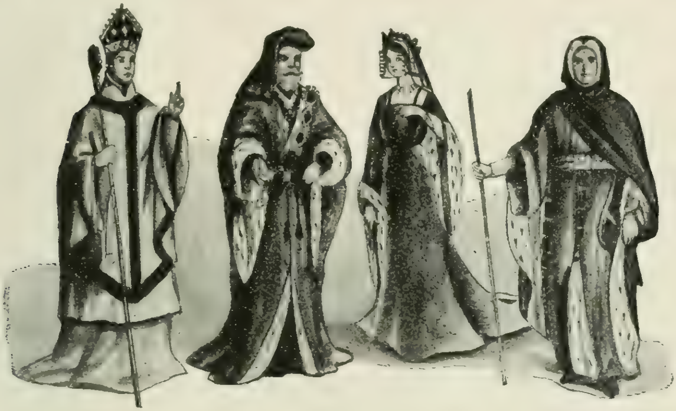
Geoffrey Chaucer

90. **Richard is deposed.**—From the time of the Peasants' Revolt, Richard was in constant trouble, both with his Council and with Parliament. In 1389 he dismissed the Council, and for the next ten years ruled alone. During the first seven years of this period, he governed well and the nation was contented and prosperous. Parliament enacted many important laws. Among these was a Statute of Præmunire, which was more stringent than one already passed in the reign of Edward III. This statute forbade the bringing into England of any papal bulls or documents without the consent of the king. But Richard began to grow arbitrary and often took his own way without regard to the laws. In 1397 his wish to crush those who had opposed him led him to execute some of them and exile others. He had gathered around him unworthy favourites who wasted his money. The country was oppressed with grievous taxes, and men could not obtain justice in the courts.

Among others, Richard had banished his cousin, Henry Bolingbroke, and had seized his estates. In 1399, while Richard was absent in Ireland, Bolingbroke landed in

England and soon had an army. Richard met him, but did not venture to fight, because he could see that his own men were in favour of his cousin. Richard was compelled to resign the crown, and Parliament gave it to Bolingbroke, who became Henry IV. In a few months Richard died, probably murdered by some creature of Henry.

91. **Progress and conditions during the Middle Ages.**—During the last century Parliament gained greatly in influence. At first Lords and Commons had met together, but in the fourteenth century the peers withdrew and sat in a separate room. This increased the power of the Commons, because they had now to be consulted separately about every money grant. The Commons further increased their power by insisting that the king should grant redress of grievances before they would vote money; and again, some years later, it was conceded that the king's accounts should be carefully audited before he should have a new grant.



COSTUMES OF FOURTEENTH CENTURY: BISHOP, EARL, COUNTESS AND JUDGE

Among the nobles there was little change in the style of building from the Norman period, but in the towns, the mud huts of merchants and artisans were being replaced by houses of brick and stone. The floors were still of mud and strewn with rushes. Streets were so narrow that the upper stories of houses on opposite sides of the street were often only five or six feet apart. A gutter ran along the street, and into this was thrown all the refuse. Labourers' cottages were still very rude. A swineherd's hut cost 5*s*. for building, 15*s*. for material. In this lived the family, the pig, the poultry, the dogs, and perhaps a cow.

Food was usually abundant, but coarse and of little variety. Wheat, oats, and barley were the principal grains, while scarcely any vegetables or fruits were cultivated. Coarse bread, meat, milk, fish, and eggs were the chief foods. The cattle were very small. Eight or ten yoke of oxen were often hitched to a single plough, and then only the surface of the soil was scratched over. From four to sixteen bushels of wheat an acre was the average crop. Wool, sheepskins, leather, tin and cloth were exported.

The wages of a skilled artisan averaged about 5*d*. a day, while those of an agricultural labourer were about 3 or 4*d*. a day. This amount would, of course, purchase much more then than it would to-day. For example, a fat fowl sold for a penny and a half; a lamb for 4*d*.; wheat sold for 9*d*. a bushel.

Manufactures and commerce in the towns were generally controlled by the Guilds. These Guilds were first started on the continent and later adopted by the English. They were associations of merchants or of craftsmen, and were formed for the purpose of mutual aid and protection. Taking advantage of the king's need of money, they bought from him charters, privileges, and power to collect their own taxes and to make their own laws. With this growth the power of the Guilds increased, until they had in their hands to a great extent the government of the towns in England. The growth of the towns in municipal power is one of the most marked features of this period.

92. **Scotland.**—After Bannockburn the strife between England and Scotland was, for the most part, a border warfare. Robert Bruce was succeeded in 1329 by his infant son, David II, who was married to a sister of Edward III. He died in 1370, leaving no heir. King David's sister had

married the High Steward of Scotland; the name came to be spelled Stuart, and from this union sprang the Stuart line of kings. The history of Scotland during the next two centuries is a dark one. The power of the Stuarts was overshadowed by the Douglas family. The border between England and Scotland was a sort of lawless land where bloody raids were as common as hunting excursions, while the Highlanders were ready to swoop down upon the Lowlands whenever a favourable chance offered.

93. **Ireland.**—The story of Scotland is one of bloodshed and strife, but that of Ireland is yet worse. The wars waged by Scotland created some national spirit, but the bloodshed in Ireland was the result of savage civil strife. The English had made no real conquest. Even the coast district, supposed to be English, gradually assumed the manners and dress of the native Irish. To check this, the English, in 1367, enacted the Statute of Kilkenny, which forbade the English in Ireland to adopt the native dress, language, or names, and made it treason for one of English blood to marry one of Irish blood. But for many years the island was constantly the scene of civil strife between the English of the coast and the native races, and among the native chiefs themselves. Finally, Richard II went to Ireland in 1399 with a strong force for the purpose of restoring order in the unfortunate country, and received the homage of many chiefs. He might have worked useful changes had not the coming of Bolingbroke made him hasten back to England.

SUMMARY

The last quarter of the fourteenth century brought about further changes for the better in the condition of the poor. The Peasants' Revolt showed that villeinage was gradually disappearing. Wycliffe's "Poor Priests" met the longings of the people to know more of religion, and his translation made it possible for an Englishman to read the Bible in his own language. Chaucer, last of the old poets and first of the new, wrote the "Canterbury Tales," not in Latin, but in English. Richard's rule became arbitrary and oppressive and he was deposed.

CHAPTER V

THE HOUSES OF YORK AND LANCASTER

1399–1485

1. Henry IV. 1399–1413

94. **Opposition to Henry**—During the first nine years of Henry's reign, his energies were directed almost entirely towards keeping the crown which he had so easily obtained. The first attempt to dethrone him was made within two months of his accession by some nobles who favoured Richard and wished to restore him. The revolt was quickly suppressed and the nobles executed. Richard died soon after this, and his body was shown to the people, that all might know that he was dead. Then the Welsh who had never given up hopes of gaining their independence, rose in rebellion under Owen Glendower, a descendant of the native princes of Wales, and defied the whole power of Henry. Three times Glendower defeated armies led against him in person by the king, and in 1402 was crowned Prince of Wales.

In the midst of Henry's troubles with the Welsh, a war with France broke out, and the Scots, true to their ancient alliance, made several incursions into England. The most powerful baron in the north and one of the strongest supporters of Henry, was the Earl of Northumberland, whose family bore the name of Percy. As it was the duty of the Percies to guard England against Scottish invasion, they kept a large number of "retainers" or hired soldiers. At the battle of Homildon Hill, the Percies totally defeated the Scots, and captured many of the Scottish nobles. The king demanded that these captives, instead of being ransomed, should be handed over to him. The Percies were indignant, and when Henry refused to ransom one of their kinsmen who had been captured by the Welsh, they joined with his enemies against him. Under Harry Percy, called "Hotspur" from his vigour and daring in battle, they united their forces with the Scots and marched south to join Owen Glendower. Henry met the combined armies at Shrewsbury in 1403 and defeated them. Hotspur was slain, and Glendower escaped to the mountains of Wales, where he maintained his independence until his death. There were a few more uprisings against Henry, but none of them gave him any serious trouble.

Peace with France was soon concluded, and by accident the young Prince James, the heir to the Scottish throne, fell into the hands of Henry. This insured freedom from Scottish invasion. For seventeen years the prince was kept a prisoner, and was then released to become King James I of Scotland.

95. **The House of Commons.**—Henry's need of strong support from the people, in order to retain his crown and to carry on his wars with Scotland and France, led to a great increase in the power of the House of Commons. The Commons secured the sole right to levy taxes, and before granting money to the king insisted on having evil practices remedied. They also secured for their members freedom of speech and freedom from arrest while in discharge of their duties. They had an accurate journal of their proceedings kept, so that there could no longer be any dispute concerning what they had done. Henry IV was so careful to rule according to law that he has been called the first constitutional monarch in the history of Europe.

96. **Persecution of the Lollards.**—The reign of Henry IV will always be remembered as the first reign during which any one in England was burned for heresy; that is, for not believing what the church taught. Henry was not a cruel man, but as he wished to be sure of the support of the church, he induced Parliament to pass, in 1401, a law that punished heresy by burning at the stake. This law, known as the Statute of Heretics, was aimed especially at the Lollards. The first one to die was a London clergyman,

who was a follower of Wycliffe. During this reign, however, there was only one other death at the stake.

97. **The Prince of Wales.**—The victory over the Percies at Shrewsbury was due largely to the bravery of the Prince of Wales. Shakespeare, in his play "King Henry IV," has described the prince as a wild and dissolute young man. This is doubtful, but if it is true, Prince Henry promptly laid aside his folly when serious work was to be done. At the age of eighteen he became a member of his father's Council, and gained an experience which proved very useful to him when, five years later, he ascended the throne. The king, who had suffered long from a troublesome disease, died in 1413.

SUMMARY

Henry's lack of hereditary title to the throne opened the way to opposition and conspiracy. The Welsh rebelled, trouble with France arose, and the sympathy of Scotland with the French led to border forays. The House of Commons greatly increased its power. During this reign two men were burned at the stake for heresy.

2. Henry V. 1413–1422

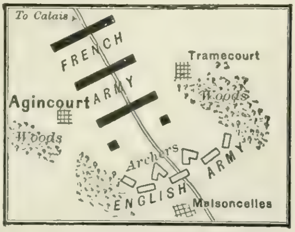
98. **Suppression of the Lollards.**—Henry V was sternly religious, and followed his father's policy in suppressing heresy. The leader of the Lollards was now Sir John Oldcastle, Lord Cobham, who had been a close friend of the king when Prince of Wales. He was tried and condemned to be burned, but before the sentence could be carried out, he escaped. His followers formed a plot to kill the king and his brothers, but their plans were found out, and thirty-nine of them were captured and put to

Henry V

death. A few years later Oldcastle also was taken and hanged. After this the Lollards were driven out of the towns, their books and their writings were burned, and little more is heard of them in England.

99. **The Hundred Years' War is renewed.**—At this time the government of France was in the hands of a weak king, and Henry seized the opportunity to revive his ancestral claims to the French throne. The nobles were anxious for an opportunity to win glory, and, moreover, although Henry had become reconciled to most of the enemies of the late king, especially to the Percies, he felt that if he occupied the attention of the nobles with a foreign war, they would be less likely to rebel against him.

In 1415 Henry landed with a large army at Harfleur, near the mouth of the Seine, and after a terrible siege captured the city. Though he had lost half his men by famine and sickness, he resolved to march overland to Calais. An army of about forty thousand Frenchmen blocked his way at Agincourt, a little north of the field of Crécy. The battle was fought on clayey ground that had just been ploughed. The evening before, it had rained, and the earth was so wet and soft and sticky that the knights in heavy armour could hardly have made their way across the field on foot; and when they attempted to ride, the horses sank to their knees. The knights were not cowards, and they did their best to press near to the English, but each one of the archers had a long, sharp stake, which he thrust into the ground in front of him while he shot; and try their best, the French could not get through the forest of stakes. Ten thousand French were killed, and several thousand were made prisoners by the little English army of probably six thousand men.



Battle of Agincourt

The victory of Agincourt, great as it was, did not conquer France. Henry was compelled to return to England to recruit his army. Two years later he went back to France, and took town after town. But Rouen held out bravely against him. Thousands of the peasants had gathered in the town for protection. The magistrates drove them out of the gates in order that food might be saved for the soldiers. Henry refused to allow them to pass his lines, and held them penned up outside the walls where old men, helpless women, and children starved to death. After six months the city was starved into surrender.

This success and a threatened attack on Paris drove the French to ask for terms of peace. A treaty, accordingly, was concluded at Troyes in 1420, by which it was agreed that Henry should marry the French princess Catherine, that he should be appointed regent during the life of the king, and that he should succeed to the throne. While making preparations for subduing the southern part of France, which held out against the peace, Henry suddenly died near Paris in 1422, after a reign of only nine years.

Henry V had become the hero of the English nation. The glory he had won in the wars at home was increased a hundred-fold by his success in France. His early death brought deeper sorrow to the nation than it had ever before felt for the loss of a king.

SUMMARY

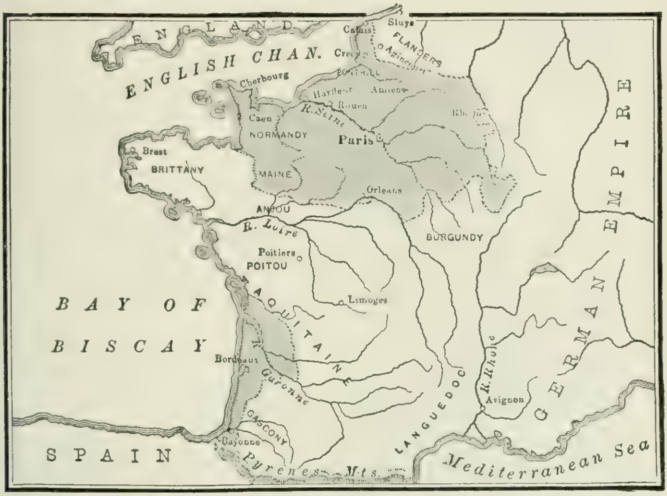
Henry V trusted those who might have been his enemies, and they became his friends. Henry put forth his ancestral claim to the throne of France. Agincourt and other victories won him a large sum of money, the hand of the French princess, the regency of France, and a promise of the crown at the death of the French king. Henry died before the French king, and the claim to the French crown descended to the infant ruler of England.

3. Henry VI. 1422–1461

100. **The Hundred Years' War comes to an end.**—The infant son of Henry V was crowned in England, and, after the death of the French king, in France also. The war against Charles VII, the son of the late king, went on under the command of a brave and capable man, the Duke

of Bedford, uncle of the young king. The French were discouraged, and made little resistance as the English army marched south from Paris, capturing town after town. Finally the English and their allies, the Burgundians, came to the city of Orleans on the Loire. If this city fell, the cause of France would be lost.

But help came from an unexpected source. If the French soldiers could be inspired with confidence in themselves they might yet win. The inspiration came to them through a little peasant girl of Domrémy in Lorraine, named Joan of Arc (Jeanne d'Arc).



French Territory held by the English in 1429

When Joan, in the remote village where she lived, heard the horrible tales of destruction wrought by the English, and when she saw that no one was able to lead the French against them, it seemed to her that she was chosen by God to deliver her country. As she thought about it more and more, she believed angels came to her, saying, "Go, Joan, and save the king! Lead him to Rheims to be crowned and anointed!" There was an old prophecy of which Joan had heard—that a maiden of Lorraine should save the kingdom. And she believed that she was the maiden.

At last, when her native village had been destroyed by the Burgundians, she made her way to the French king's court. Soon the news spread among the French soldiers that a maiden had come from heaven to save France. Clad in armour and mounted on a white horse, she was placed at the head of an army to relieve Orleans. With shouts of triumph, the French assaulted the towers built by the English besiegers before the city, and carried them. The English commanders gave up in despair, and the next day retreated. The maid urged a hot pursuit, and inflicted another severe defeat on the enemy. She led the king to Rheims, the old coronation city of France, and there in the great cathedral, July 17th, 1429, she saw with joy the crown placed upon his head. She now led the triumphant French armies to the siege of Paris, but the attack was a failure, and she herself was wounded. After this she met with little success, and she felt that her mission was accomplished.

Statue of Joan of Arc
Place des Pyramides, Paris

In the following spring the Burgundians took Joan prisoner and sold her to the English. She was tried as a witch and condemned to be burned. The French king made no effort to save her. She died declaring to the last that the voices which urged her to go against the English came from God, and "Jesus" was the last word she uttered before the smoke and flame stopped her voice forever. An English soldier standing by cried out in terror, "We are lost! We have burned a saint!"

The final defeat of the English was at hand, for the French spirit of patriotism had at last been aroused. Bedford was compelled to return to England, and during his absence the French gained rapidly. After his death, the Burgundians and French united against the English, and Paris was soon won back. A truce was made, and the young English king, Henry VI, married Margaret, a princess of Anjou. But before long the French reconquered Normandy and some coast towns, and England, out of all her possessions, was allowed to retain only the little town of Calais. The Hundred Years' War was now at an end (1453). The ambition of two warlike kings, Edward III and Henry V, had cost the country untold blood and treasure, and brought in the end only loss and shame.

There were, however, some good results from the French wars. One was that the power of the House of Commons was more and more increased. The kings needed much money, and as the only way to obtain it was through the Commons, they learned that the best way to procure what they wished was to obey the will of the people. Another important result was that a strong national pride was developed. The knights had learned to respect the yeomen; and now that the yeomen had found that they too were esteemed of worth in the land, they had less jealousy of the knights.

101. **Discontent in England.**—Nevertheless there were several reasons why many people in England were discontented and ready for a change in the government. One reason was their indignation that after so much fighting the French lands should have been lost. Another reason was that men who voted for members of Parliament were not allowed to vote freely; and, worst of all, as the king grew up, although he was quiet and gentle and kind-hearted, he had no idea how to rule a

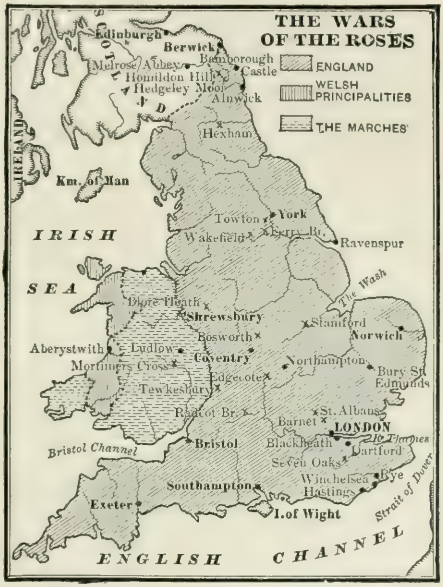
kingdom. There were courts of justice, to be sure, but the jurymen were frequently chosen simply because they were friends of one of the contestants, and if they did not vote for his side, they were in danger of being beaten or killed on the way home. The people also had a special grievance. Owing to bad methods of farming, the soil had become impoverished, and large tracts which had been the homes of the poor were fenced in and turned into sheep pastures. Wool brought a good price, and less labour was required to look after the flocks than to cultivate the soil.

The discontent of the people with the way in which the government was carried on, led to a rebellion which broke out in Kent in 1450, under the leadership of Jack Cade, an Irish adventurer. The royal forces were defeated at Sevenoaks, and London opened its gates to Cade and his lawless followers. The rebels began to murder and pillage, but on a promise of pardon left the city. Cade was shortly afterwards killed, and the rebellion suppressed. In spite of the promise of pardon the rebels were punished with merciless severity.

In 1453, just as the French war ended, the king's mind failed him, and from then to the end of his life, he was subject to fits of insanity. In the same year an heir to the throne was born. Then people were utterly discouraged. Even those who had felt that it would be better to bear their troubles patiently, as long as Henry VI lived, could not endure the thought of another infant king and the troubles that a long regency would bring.

102. **The Wars of the Roses.**—When Henry IV was crowned, the claims of Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March, who was descended from the third son of Edward III, were set aside. Edmund had died, but his sister had married her cousin, and they had a son named Richard, Duke of York. As Richard's father and mother were both descended from Edward III, and his mother came from an older son than the one from whom Henry was descended, many people felt that he had a strong claim to the throne. When Henry became insane, the Duke of York was made Protector, with

the thought that he should succeed to the throne. But the birth of a young prince, and Henry's restoration to health shattered the Duke of York's hopes; at last he decided to maintain his rights by war. Thus arose a series of wars between the two rival houses of York and Lancaster for the kingship. They lasted with brief intermissions for thirty years, and are called the Wars of the Roses, because the badge of Lancaster was the red rose, and that of York the white rose. As the struggle was waged chiefly between the nobles, it did much less damage than might have been expected. The commerce and progress of the country were scarcely interrupted. The people as a whole did not care very much which royal house held the throne, but they were tired of a weak government and they desired a king with sufficient force to rule his kingdom.


THE WARS OF THE ROSES

The first battle of the Wars of the Roses was fought at St. Albans in 1455, and the Yorkists were victorious. Five years later, at Northampton, Queen Margaret, the recognized leader of the Lancastrians, who was fighting for the rights of her young son, was defeated and forced to flee. She quickly raised another army and in turn routed the Lancastrians at Wakefield. In this battle the Duke of York was killed; but his son, Edward, at once put himself at the head of the Yorkists, defeated the queen at Mortimer's Cross, and marching on London, was there, with the consent of Parliament, crowned as Edward IV.

SUMMARY

The long minority of the king made efforts to hold the French throne unavailing, and at the close of the Hundred Years' War in 1453, Calais was the only bit of France that still belonged to England. Although in this long war, different ranks had learned a mutual respect, and the power of the Commons had increased, because the kings were obliged to apply to them for the large sums of money that were needed, there was much discontent in England. Finally, the failure of the king's mind and the prospect of another child ruler opened a way to Richard, Duke of York, to seize the throne. The fierce Wars of the Roses then began. Richard was slain, but his son became King Edward IV.

4. Edward IV. 1461–1483

103. **The Wars of the Roses continued.**—In the meantime, Margaret had recovered from the defeat at Mortimer's Cross, and, after a victory over the Yorkists at the second battle of St. Albans, marched southwards. Edward, loyally supported by the people of London, and with the assistance of the powerful Earl of Warwick, advanced to meet her. The two armies met in 1461 at Towton, near York, in the midst of a blinding snowstorm. This was the most important battle of the war. The Yorkists were victorious, but thirty thousand Englishmen lay dead on the field. The army of the Lancastrians was scattered, and Margaret, with her husband and son, fled to Scotland. The queen, however, was not discouraged, but continued her efforts. She succeeded in obtaining aid from the king of France, and advanced from Scotland with an army. But she was again defeated; Henry was captured and imprisoned in the Tower of London.

The Earl of Warwick, by whose aid Edward had been raised to the throne, naturally expected to have control of the government, and when the king took the matter of his marriage and appointments to offices into his own hands, the earl was greatly offended. Edward married Elizabeth

Woodville, a widow of no great rank, and bestowed vast estates and titles upon her numerous relatives. Not only Warwick, but the other great Yorkist nobles were very angry at seeing members of this family receiving greater honours than the first lords of the country. Other actions of Edward followed which Warwick regarded as insulting to him personally. He was so incensed that before long he met Margaret in France, and with her planned to invade England. Edward was rudely aroused from his indolence when Warwick landed in England in 1470. He had only time to slip away with a few followers to the coast, and board a ship bound for Flanders. Warwick now brought King Henry out of the Tower, and recrowned him with a great deal of ceremony. The ease with which Warwick made and unmade kings has gained for him the name of the "King-maker."

But Edward had not been idle. He soon landed in England with an army raised in France, and defeated Warwick at the battle of Barnet. The "King-maker" met his death on the field. Margaret, who landed later with another army, was in turn defeated at the battle of Tewkesbury. The young Prince Edward was put to death, Margaret was made prisoner, and Henry VI was again confined in the Tower, where he was shortly afterwards murdered.

104. **Edward's government.**—Edward was again on the throne, and he seemed to feel that he was now entitled to enjoy himself. As he did not wish to call a Parliament, he originated a plan for obtaining funds in such a way that no one would dare to object. This was to invite wealthy men to make him a present, or *benevolence*, as he called it. By means of the confiscation of estates and forced loans, Edward was enabled to rule without calling a Parliament, and to make himself very powerful.

Edward's dissolute life made him old before his time. He knew that the nobles hated him, and that he had disappointed the hopes of the people. He became weary of life, and died, worn out, after a reign of twenty-two years.

105. **Printing is introduced into England.**—The most important event of this reign was, perhaps, the introduction of printing into England. In 1477, William Caxton set up a press at Westminster. He was a native of Kent, and had travelled in Germany and Flanders, where he learned to be a printer. Printing from movable types had been invented in Germany about thirty years before it was introduced into England. In all Caxton issued about sixty volumes, many of which he translated himself from the French or the Latin. The people of that time looked upon the printing press as a curious toy, little dreaming of the wonderful changes that it was destined to make in the history of England before the close of the next century.

106. **Literature.**—During the one hundred and thirty years preceding the end of Edward's reign, there had been too much fighting going on for a people to write; but they were interested in many more subjects than in earlier times, and every one that could afford such luxury had bought books, though these had been so expensive that a collection of thirty volumes was looked upon as a valuable library for even a wealthy gentleman to possess. People were still composing ballads; for while few felt like writing books, yet the excitement and the sudden changes did arouse people to compose short, strong ballads, which tell a story in so few words that each one seems almost like a sudden battle-stroke. But the people continued to sing the old ballads over and over again, frequently changing some of the words, and that is the reason there are often several versions of the same story.

SUMMARY

The Wars of the Roses continued, and Henry was taken prisoner, but Edward's quarrel with the "King-maker" led to the temporary restoration of Henry. At last Warwick was slain, Henry was again imprisoned, and Edward was on the throne. To obtain money for his pleasures, he originated "benevolences.' The great event of the reign was William Caxton's introduction of printing into England. Few books were written, but many ballads were composed.

5. Edward V. 1483

107. **The short reign of Edward V.**—Richard, Duke of Gloucester, the late king's brother, was a prudent and far-seeing man, but he thought little of sacrificing those who stood in the way of his ambition. He was slightly deformed, but was good-natured and well liked by the people. He was also an able soldier, and had fought bravely for his brother; but there is no doubt that he kept steadily before himself the design of securing the crown. When Edward IV died, his eldest son, Edward, a boy of twelve, was proclaimed king. Richard was made Protector and ruled with the assistance of a Council.

In order to carry out his designs, Richard secured possession of the persons of Edward and his younger brother, the Duke of York, and confined them in the Tower. After the princes were in his hands, he did not conceal from those nobles who were willing to stand by him, his intention of becoming king. He prevailed upon Parliament to declare that the marriage of Edward IV had not been legal, and that, therefore, his children could not inherit the throne. Several people who might have stood in his way were executed, and at last Parliament offered him the crown. He did not, however, feel safe so long as the two princes in the Tower were alive. The story was spread that they had mysteriously disappeared, but every one believed that Richard had killed them. No one dared to ask questions; but many years afterwards some workmen found two little skeletons buried at the foot of a staircase in the Tower, and it has been thought that they were those of the murdered princes.

SUMMARY

After the death of Edward IV his brother Richard, Duke of Gloucester, was made Protector. Richard was determined to secure the crown, and did so, and the two young princes met their death in the Tower.

6. Richard III. 1483–1485

108. **The end of the Wars of the Roses.**—During his short reign, Richard ruled wisely and well. He abolished "benevolences" and treated the people fairly and justly. For the first time, he had laws translated into English and printed. In regard to printing he made an especially good law; though foreigners could not trade in England without paying a tax, yet any one who wished to write, print, bind, or sell books might do so as freely as if he had been born an Englishman.

It is possible that if it had not been for the belief that he had murdered the princes, Richard might have remained on the throne without any effort being made to depose him; but, after this, both the nobles and the common people were every day more and more determined not to submit to his rule. The leading men of the kingdom now set to work in earnest to find a man strong enough to dethrone the king.

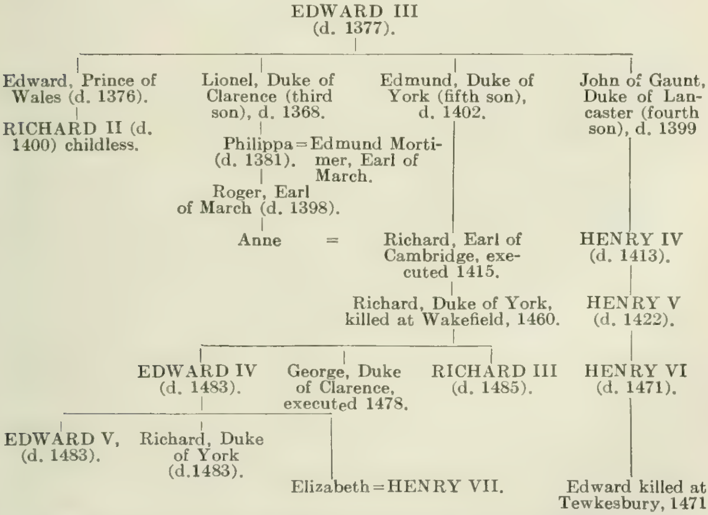
There was one Lancastrian claimant to the throne whom neither Edward IV nor Richard III had been able to reach. This was Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, whose mother was descended from Edward III. He had long been living in exile; now some of the nobles planned to have him return and head a rebellion against Richard.

Henry Tudor's first attempt to enter England ended in failure. His fleet was scattered by a storm, but in the summer of 1485 he came again, landing at Milford Haven on the coast of Wales. As Henry's father was a Welshman, the people readily joined him. Richard mustered an army twice the size of Henry's. But when the two armies met on Bosworth Field, Richard saw that he was betrayed; for part of his forces went over to the enemy and another part refused to fight. Richard and a few faithful men charged the enemy. His quick eye caught sight of his rival's standard, and with a shout of "Treason!" he put spurs to his horse and dashed on, hoping to kill Henry in a hand-to-hand fight. The standard-bearer fell beneath his sword, but Richard was unhorsed. At last, after fighting bravely on foot, he fell, bleeding from a dozen wounds. His battered crown was found near by, and was placed upon his rival's head while the united armies echoed the shout of "Long live King Henry!" Thus ended the Wars of the Roses.

SUMMARY

Richard III secured the crown by usurpation. He ruled well, but public opinion against him grew rapidly, and after a reign of two years he was slain at the battle of Bosworth, and Henry Tudor of the House of Lancaster became king. Bosworth was the last battle of the Wars of the Roses.

THE HOUSES OF LANCASTER AND YORK


EDWARD III (d. 1377).
Edward, Prince of Wales (d. 1376).
RICHARD II (d. 1400) childless.
Lionel, Duke of Clarence (third son), d. 1368.
Philippa (d. 1381). = Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March.
Roger, Earl of March (d. 1398).
Anne = Richard, Earl of Cambridge, executed 1415.
Edmund, Duke of York (fifth son), d. 1402.
Richard, Duke of York, killed at Wakefield, 1460.
John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster (fourth son), d. 1399
HENRY IV (d. 1413).
HENRY V (d. 1422).
HENRY VI (d. 1471).
EDWARD IV (d. 1483).
George, Duke of Clarence, executed 1478.
RICHARD III (d. 1485).
EDWARD V, (d. 1483).
Richard, Duke of York (d.1483).
Elizabeth = HENRY VII.
Edward killed at Tewkesbury, 1471

NOTE—After the death of Henry V, his widow married a Welsh gentleman, named Owen Tudor. Their son, Edmund, Earl of Richmond, married Lady Margaret Beaufort, a great-granddaughter of John of Gaunt, son of Edward III. Their eldest son was Henry VII.

CHAPTER VI

THE TUDOR SOVEREIGNS

1485–1603

1. HENRY VII. 1485–1509

109. **The first of the Tudors.**—Henry VII was now on the throne, and as his grandfather had been a Welshman, named Owen Tudor, he, his son, and his three grandchildren, who in turn succeeded to the throne, are known as the Tudors. Although Henry could make no good claim to the crown through descent, his victory at Bosworth gave him a claim by conquest. This claim was legalized beyond a doubt by Parliament, which made him king and fixed the succession in his heirs. Shortly after he came to the throne, he married Elizabeth, the daughter of Edward IV, and thus secured the good-will of the Yorkists. Some one has truly said that England at this time needed a constable to keep order, and that Henry VII was that constable. He had no desire to win glory in war. He loved power, and he saw clearly that to secure this and to give good government to England, he must crush the power of the nobles, and keep the country at peace.

HENRY VII

110. **Increase of the king's power.**—In one respect England was at this time an easy country to rule, for the clergy desired a strong government, and many of the powerful nobles who might have opposed the royal sway, had been killed in the Wars of the Roses. The other nobles had much less

power than their grandfathers had had; for now that so little of the old feudalism survived, they could not easily call together men to fight in support of whatever cause they chose. Henry weakened still more the power of the nobles by forbidding them to maintain bands of men wearing their uniform, the punishment being a heavy fine, or imprisonment. This law against "Maintenance and Livery," as it was called, removed an evil which had existed for many years and had grown to serious proportions during the Wars of the Roses.

Another cause of the weakening of the power of the nobles was a change in the method of fighting. During the Norman period the charge of a body of armour-clad knights was resistless; but English archers had long since learned to shoot an arrow so swiftly that, at close range, a knight's armour was no protection. Then, too, the introduction of gunpowder had made a still greater change. Although the smaller firearms were still very crude, cannon were made powerful enough to batter down stone walls, thus enabling the king to destroy even the strongest castles. Moreover, as cannon were very expensive, few but the king could afford to keep them; in fact, Henry had in his own control all the cannon of the state.

Complete Suit of Plate Armour, Fifteenth Century

Formerly, when any great noble was charged with an offence, he was tried by the courts in his neighbourhood, and was thus frequently able to escape punishment by compelling both the judge and the jury to do his will. The Star Chamber Court, which consisted of two chief justices and certain members of the Royal Council, was established by Henry to bring powerful offenders to justice. Any nobleman who broke the laws or took part in rebellious plots against the king, was tried and punished by this new tribunal with as little fear as if he were a peasant. The court was known as the Star Chamber, because stars were painted on the ceiling of the room in which it was held.

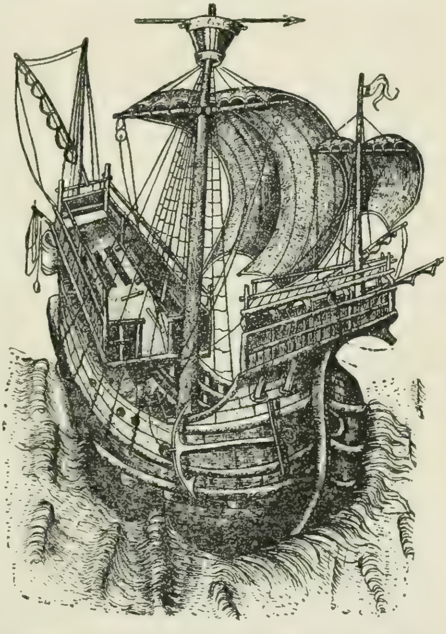
But perhaps the strongest reason why Henry was enabled to increase his power so materially was that he had the general support of the people. It was the nobles who had wrested the Great Charter from John and who had opposed the tyrannical kings, but they had used their power to oppress the people. Now that the people were stronger and knew their strength, they felt that their best protection lay in upholding the power of a king who did not fear to govern in their interests, and who was strong enough to keep peace in the land.

Of course, there were some rebellions, but none that Henry needed to fear. A boy was once brought forward with the claim that he was the nephew of Edward IV, but not many believed in him and he was soon taken prisoner. It was easily found out that his name was Lambert Simnel, and that he was the son of a baker at Oxford. Henry was amused rather than angry, and told his officers to take the boy to the kitchen and let him work there in peace. Not long after, a young man named Perkin Warbeck, who had been trained to personate the young Duke of York, who had been murdered in the Tower, was put forward as a claimant for the throne. Many of the Irish and of the Scots were inclined to help him, and his efforts lasted actually for five years. Finally, he was shut up in the Tower, and afterwards beheaded.

111. **Henry's methods of raising money.**—At the same time that Henry was bending all his energies towards increasing his power, he was also putting forth every effort to fill the royal treasury. He feared to alienate the people as a whole by taxing them too severely, and, moreover, he could not impose any general tax without the permission of Parliament. As he greatly preferred not to call a

Parliament, except when really necessary, he adopted methods of raising money which made him independent of that body, and at the same time kept those men in subjection who were likely to prove dangerous.

With Parliament not in session and the nation as a whole in his favour, Henry could venture to take from the rich, and this he did. He called for the "benevolences" which Edward IV had originated and Richard III had abolished. One Cardinal Morton is said to have invented a plan known as "Morton's Fork," by which Henry could obtain money from any one that had it. If a man lived expensively, the king's agent would say to him, "You are spending so much on yourself that you may rightfully be required to contribute to the expenses of your sovereign." If a man lived simply and without extravagance, the agent would say, "Your living costs you so little that you must have enough laid by to make a generous gift to the king." Thus a man was sure to be caught on either one tine of the fork or the other.



Ocean Ship of the Fifteenth Century

Henry was a lover of peace as well as of money, and took part in no wars of consequence. On one occasion he persuaded Parliament to make a large grant to carry on a war with France; but as soon as the tax had been collected, he made a treaty of peace with the French, and kept the money himself. When he died, he left a fortune of about £2,000,000 sterling, equal in our money to-day to at least $90,000,000.

112. **Commerce and exploration.**—There was no English navy in the fifteenth century for the protection of commerce. Piracy was common, and merchant vessels went armed. Fur-trading was now begun with the coasts of the Baltic, and, in the west of England, companies were formed to engage in the fisheries around the coasts of Iceland. Domestic trade also was protected and prosperous.

The introduction of the mariner's compass into Europe during the fifteenth century had enabled navigators to sail far from land and to venture into unknown seas. It was during this reign, in 1492, that Columbus made for Spain his wonderful voyage westwards to what he supposed was eastern Asia. A few years later, in 1497, John Cabot, a Venetian living in Bristol, with his son Sebastian, discovered Newfoundland. The private diary of Henry VII bears this entry, "To him that found the new isle, £10." Another entry says, "To men of Bristol that found the isle, £5."

113. **The death of Henry.**—As Henry was securely established on his throne and was recognized as a rich and powerful monarch, his children were sought in marriage by other royal families. His eldest son, Arthur, married Catherine of Aragon, daughter of the king of Spain. Arthur dying the next year, negotiations were begun for marrying the young widow to Henry, the second son of Henry VII. The king's eldest daughter was married to James IV, the king of Scotland.

Henry died in 1509, after a reign of twenty-four years, and was buried in Westminster Abbey in a splendid chapel which he had built for the purpose. He left to his surviving son, Henry, a strong, well-organized, and orderly government.

SUMMARY

With Henry VII began the "personal monarchy" of the strong-willed Tudors. Henry had so firm a hold on the crown by the decree of Parliament, by the result of battle, and by his marriage, that the

efforts of pretenders to the throne were useless. To obtain money he resorted to "benevolences" and other questionable schemes, but any possible revolt of the nobles against a king who controlled the cannon of the country was hopeless. He left a full treasury and a peaceful, united country, well disposed to obey its sovereign.

2. Henry VIII. 1509–1547

114. **A popular king.**—When Henry VIII came to the throne, the country had every reason to rejoice. He was a talented and athletic young man, "as handsome as nature could make him." He was well educated, fond of books and of music, and even wrote songs, some of which have come down to us. He had frank, winsome manners, enjoyed hunting and bowling, and, in the use of the bow he surpassed the archers of his own guard. One of his first acts was to punish the men who had been the instruments of his father in extorting money from the wealthy classes under the form of law. After a slight delay, he fulfilled the marriage treaty made by his father, and married Catherine, his brother's widow, who was six years his senior. This bound him to Spain, then a powerful kingdom. England was at peace, the treasury was overflowing, and the people were happy and hopeful. Nothing seemed to show that the reign of Henry was to be the most eventful in the history of England up to that time.

Henry VIII

115. **Henry's foreign policy.**—Henry soon became ambitious to play a part in affairs outside of England, although the wisest of his councillors had learned that it was best to avoid being mixed up in foreign wars. Two years after he came to the throne he joined Spain and Germany in an attempt to drive the French out of Italy, but no important results followed. Later he helped

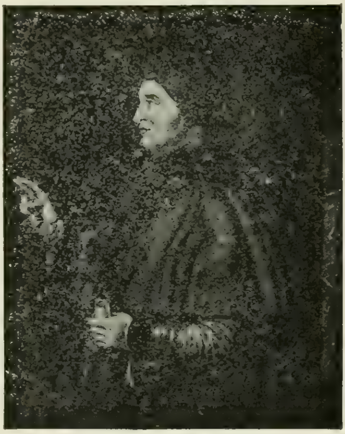
the German emperor to win one battle against the French in Flanders, " a greater victory than which," he wrote to Catherine, "was never won anywhere." A panic seized the French knights and they fled without striking a blow. The battle is commonly known as the "Battle of the Spurs," because the French knights fled so rapidly; it is said that over three thousand were slain in the rout.

The attack on France stirred up Scotland, and James IV, who was Henry's brother-in-law, led an army into England. It was terribly defeated at the battle of Flodden Field, through the skill of the English general, the Earl of Surrey. The Scottish king, the chief of his nobility, and ten thousand of his men, were left dead on the field.

Henry was shrewd enough to see that his European allies were using him merely for their own advantage, and he made peace with France. Soon afterwards, Francis I became king of France, and Charles V succeeded to the throne of Spain. These three young and ambitious sovereigns were now leaders in the affairs of Europe. Both Francis and Charles were anxious to secure the good-will of Henry. Charles visited him in England, and Francis invited him to a meeting in France. The meeting with Francis took place on a plain near Calais, and so great was the magnificence displayed on this occasion that the meeting-place was called the "Field of the Cloth of Gold." In spite, however, of all the promises made to Francis, Henry's help was given to Charles; but afterwards, when Francis was taken prisoner, Henry went to his aid, though he exacted liberal payment for his assistance. Henry's aim was to keep the power of Francis and of Charles as nearly equal as possible, lest one or the other should become too strong for England to resist.

116. **Cardinal Wolsey.**—Henry was largely indebted to the efforts of his chancellor, Thomas Wolsey, for such success as attended his policy on the continent. Wolsey was the son of a wool merchant at Ipswich, where he was born in 1471. He graduated from Oxford at the age of fifteen and a few years later became chaplain to Henry VII.

He was employed in many affairs of state, and so well did he perform his duties that his rise was rapid. At the age of forty, he was a member of the Royal Council of Henry VIII. In 1514 he was made Archbishop of York. The following year he was raised to the dignity of Cardinal and became Lord Chancellor of the kingdom. Three years later, at the suggestion of Henry, he was appointed papal legate, a position which made him the personal representative of the Pope in England. For nearly twenty years the affairs of the country were in Wolsey's hands; in both church and state he was supreme. He devoted himself to carrying out the wishes of the king and to increasing the greatness of the country. Though he lived in a state of great magnificence in his palaces at Whitehall and Hampton Court, he was thoughtful of the poor and tried to do for them what was just and kind. With neither the nobility nor the people, however, was he popular. The nobles were jealous of his power, and scorned his humble origin; the people disliked him because he taxed them heavily in order to raise money for the king. His enormous power, too, made him haughty and arrogant. The Venetian ambassador wrote home that when he first came to England, Wolsey would say, "*His Majesty* will do so and so;" a little later he would say, "*We* shall do so and so;" and finally he said, "*I* shall do so and so."



Cardinal Wolsey

117. **The Renaissance.**—Henry was interested not only in statecraft, but in the wonderful new learning that was spreading over the world. In 1453, the year that the Hundred Years' War closed, the Turks captured Constantinople. Many learned Greeks lived in this city, and they went away

to Italy, especially to Florence. Long before Cæsar went to Britain, the Greeks were a remarkable nation. They had great poets and historians and philosophers, and their sculptors did finer work than any one has done since. For centuries people had forgotten all this. When the Greeks came to Florence and taught the Florentines to read their language, men began to realize what valuable old books there were in the world. This new interest in the old knowledge is called the Renaissance, or the *new birth.* It spread rapidly over the continent; for printing had come at just the right time to help people to procure the old manuscripts in book form. England soon became interested, for English scholars, like Colet, went to Italy to study, and brought books and knowledge back with them to their own country. The study of Greek was introduced into the colleges at Oxford and Cambridge, and many schools were founded throughout the country. Famous scholars, Erasmus and others, visited England and taught in the universities and schools, and did much to spread the new learning. The influence of the Renaissance had been felt in England even before Henry came to the throne, and he gave it his support. Wolsey, too, was strongly in favour of the new movement; he established a school at Ipswich and founded a college, now known as Christ Church College, at Oxford.

118. **Henry as a theologian.**—Henry was ambitious to be known as a literary man and a theologian. Before long the opportunity presented itself. In Germany, Martin Luther, who was a monk and professor at the University of Wittenburg, had declared that certain abuses existed in the church, which ought to be reformed. He had refused to submit to the authority of the church, and the Pope had excommunicated him. Many people in Germany supported Luther, and thus the Protestant Reformation began. Henry was a loyal son of the church and wrote, in 1521, a book defending the position of the Pope. As a reward for this he received the title of "Defender of the Faith."

119. **The Act of Supremacy.**—After Henry had reigned for eighteen years he began to be greatly troubled about the

succession to the throne. Only one of his children, his daughter Mary, had survived. Up to this time, however, no woman had ever ruled over the English people. Although special permission had been granted by the Pope to perform the ceremony, Henry declared that he had done wrong in marrying his brother's widow, and he now wished to obtain a decree from the present Pope dissolving the marriage. It would be easier to have confidence in his scruples of conscience, if he had not already chosen the woman whom he wished to take in Catherine's stead. She was a beautiful young girl named Anne Boleyn, the daughter of an English nobleman, and was a maid of honour to the queen. When she appeared at court, Henry was greatly pleased with her beauty, and determined that she should be his wife. He knew that it would be difficult to secure the decree from the Pope, but he had confidence that Wolsey could obtain it for him.

At first Wolsey was in favour of the divorce, thinking that Henry would marry a French princess, and so increase the influence of England on the continent; but when he found that Henry was determined to marry Anne Boleyn, he did all he could to dissuade him. At last, however, he yielded to the king's urgings and did his best to secure a favourable decree from the Pope, Clement VII. The Pope was in a difficult position. He did not believe in the justice of Henry's claims, and, moreover, Catherine was the aunt of the powerful Charles V of Spain. Finally, he gave Wolsey and Cardinal Campeggio, the Italian Bishop of Salisbury, authority to try the case. There was a long delay, and no decision was given. Henry, thinking that Wolsey was the cause of the delay, poured out his wrath on his unfortunate minister. Wolsey was charged with having broken the law in acting as papal legate, although he had done so with the consent of the king. He was dismissed from the chancellorship, his property was forfeited, and he was required to retire to his archbishopric at York. Later a charge of treason was brought against him, but he died in 1530 while on his way to London to stand his trial.

That same year, Henry, at the suggestion of Dr. Thomas

Cranmer of Cambridge, decided to obtain from the learned men of the universities of Europe opinions as to the legality of his marriage with Catherine. Heavy bribes were used, and many opinions favourable to the king's contention were received. Still the Pope would take no action, and Henry resolved to defy him. As both the Parliament and the people of England had time and again shown determined opposition when the Pope had attempted to interfere in matters affecting the church and the kingdom, Henry felt that he could depend on them for support. In 1531 Parliament declared that the clergy were guilty of a violation of the law in recognizing Wolsey as papal legate. The clergy were terrified and offered to pay an enormous fine. Henry forgave them, but compelled them to acknowledge the king as the "Supreme Head of the English Church," and to agree not to legislate in religious matters without his authority. The clergy were also forced to declare formally that the marriage with Catherine was invalid; Cranmer, who had been created Archbishop of Canterbury, pronounced the decree in 1533. Henry had already married Anne Boleyn, and a few days after Cranmer's declaration she was publicly crowned.

The Parliament which met in 1529 lasted for seven years. It was entirely submissive to the will of the king and passed whatever laws he wished. Acts were passed prohibiting all appeals to Rome, and the payment of money in any way to the Pope. Another law, called the Act of Succession, declared Henry's marriage with Catherine unlawful, and that with Anne lawful, and provided that the children of Henry and Anne should succeed to the throne. The Act of Supremacy, passed in 1534, declared Henry to be the Supreme Head of the Church in England, and also declared that any one who refused to acknowledge this headship was guilty of high treason. The separation between the English Church and Rome was now complete.

Henry, however, still retained the title of "Defender of the Faith," and showed little sympathy with the doctrines of the Protestants, as the followers of Luther were called. Many Protestants had made their way into England, and their teaching was spreading throughout the kingdom. The result of this peculiar position of things was, that if a man was a Protestant he might be burned as a heretic; while if he was a Roman Catholic and held that the Pope was the head of the church, he might be beheaded as a traitor. Some of the best men in England were put to death for refusing to agree with the king.

Among those who suffered death for their belief were Sir Thomas More and John Fisher, the aged Bishop of Rochester. More was one of the most learned men of his time, and had succeeded Wolsey as Lord Chancellor. When, however, Henry married Anne Boleyn, More resigned his office and retired to his home. He would not admit the legality of the king's marriage with Anne, although quite willing to acknowledge Anne's children to be the lawful successors to the throne, because Parliament had made them so. The king was furious, and More was sent to the block. Not only England, but all Europe was shocked at his execution.

Sir Thomas More

120. **The suppression of the monasteries.**—When Henry began his reign, much of the land in the kingdom was in the possession of the church. The cathedrals, monasteries, chapels, and abbeys held estates, by the income of which they were maintained. Though the monasteries were extremely wealthy, their influence over the people had greatly declined. Wolsey had already closed some of the smaller houses and used their revenues to found schools and colleges; now the idea occurred to Henry that he might close all the monasteries and take their estates for himself.

The task of suppressing the monasteries was entrusted to Thomas Cromwell, who for some years after the death of

Wolsey, was the chief adviser of the king. Cromwell had been in the service of Wolsey and had assisted him in the dissolution of some of the smaller monasteries. After the fall of Wolsey, he gained the favour of the king, and it is said that it was by his advice that Henry had defied the power of the Pope. Cromwell was given full control and proceeded ruthlessly to carry out his instructions. The king's agents visited and inspected the monasteries and reported that they found great irregularities in their management. This was accepted as just ground for closing them. The smaller institutions were swept away by an Act of Parliament passed in 1536, and three years later the remaining monasteries were confiscated. The monks and nuns were turned adrift, although some of them were pensioned. The estates not retained for the king's own use were given to his friends, or sold at a tithe of their value. The splendid buildings were stripped of everything of value; books and manuscripts were burned; images were thrown down; windows of beautiful stained glass were shattered; and only the ruined, moss-grown walls now remain to tell the story of the past. So passed away an institution which, in its time, had played a great part in English life.

THOMAS CROMWELL

During the greater part of the Middle Ages the monks and priests were the only men of any learning. They wrote books and copied manuscripts; they were the architects who planned and built many beautiful churches and abbeys; they looked after the spiritual welfare of the people; they made men's wills and distributed the property among the heirs; they frequently adopted orphans and educated them; they alone had schools where poor men's sons might learn to read;

they alone gave alms to the poor. The monks were almost the only farmers who drained swamps and set good examples in agriculture. The abbeys were, in some parts of the country, the only places where travellers could procure refreshment and lodging. In short, the monks, nuns, and priests were an intimate part of the daily life of every family, and dark as the Middle Ages were, they must have been yet darker but for the civilizing and protecting care of the church.

So bitter was the opposition to the spoliation of the monasteries, that serious rebellions broke out in 1536 in the north of England. At one time nearly one hundred thousand men were under arms. The rising was called the Pilgrimage of Grace, because every soldier bore a badge with a device to represent the five wounds of Christ. The pilgrims demanded that Cromwell be removed, that the monasteries be restored, and that the authority of the Pope be recognized. The king made some indefinite promises; but when all was quiet and the northern towns fortified, the leaders of the rebellion were tried and put to death.

121. **Suffering of the poor.**—This destruction of the monasteries, many hundreds of them, was one of several causes that brought distress upon the poor of the kingdom, for the hungry had always been certain of a meal at the monastery gate. There were other reasons for the suffering. The king had put so much cheap metal into the coins that prices had risen. If prices and wages had gone up at the same rate, the poor would not have suffered so severely; but wages rose slowly while prices rose rapidly, and there was great destitution in the merest necessaries of life. Another reason lay in the increase of sheep-raising and the inclosure of more and more land for this purpose. Worse than this, the commons, where the poor had always had the right to pasture a cow or keep a pig, were also inclosed for the landlord's sheep. This seizure of the commons, taken together with the loss of help from the monasteries, made the poor who were old and feeble suffer severely. Many of those that were strong and well and could find no work became robbers and beggars. This led Parliament to pass many harsh laws to prevent

these poor people from becoming a danger to the rich. No effort was made to reform the "sturdy beggar" or to provide work for him, and no plan was made to assist the aged and the sick; the whole aim of the law seemed to be to get rid of troublesome people.

122. **Henry's marriages.**—In the meantime, Henry was again considering the question of marriage. He had become tired of Anne. She had brought him a daughter, Elizabeth, but he still had no son. It was not difficult to find people who would give the testimony that the king desired, and the result was that after three years of marriage, Anne was accused of misconduct and beheaded. The next day the king married Jane Seymour; Parliament met at once and declared that the Princess Elizabeth, as well as the Princess Mary, should never inherit the crown.

Jane Seymour died, leaving one child, who was named Edward, and Henry now had a son to whom he could leave the crown. But he was determined to marry again. Cromwell was anxious for an alliance with the North German princes, most of whom were Protestants, and, accordingly, arranged a marriage with Anne of Cleves, a German princess, whom he described to Henry as being very beautiful. Anne was far from beautiful, and the king, when he saw her, could with difficulty be prevailed upon to go through the marriage ceremony. The North German princes refused to enter into an alliance with Henry. His wrath now turned on Cromwell, who was accused of high treason and sent to the block. After a few months Henry obtained a divorce from Anne, on the ground that, as he had married her against his will, he had not given his full consent. He had two more wives; Catherine Howard, who was charged with misconduct in early life, and beheaded, and Catherine Parr, who survived him.

123. **The new religion.**—The influence of the Reformation in Europe had already been felt in England, and there were many who believed that the changes in the church should be made not only in organization but in doctrine. Already, in 1538, Cromwell had ordered that a Bible be placed in every church, and that the people be urged to

read it. The next year, in order to "abolish diversity of opinions," the king, with the consent of Parliament, issued a new creed in Six Articles, asserting the main doctrines of the Roman Catholic church. With this "whip of six strings" Henry persecuted his people until the end of his reign. Any one who would not conform was to lose his property for the first offence; for the second he lost his life. Hundreds of people were arrested, and during the rest of Henry's life, which stretched out eight years longer, several were burnt at the stake. In spite of this, however, there was at court a strong party in sympathy with the reformers, prominent amongst whom was Edward Seymour, the uncle of the young Prince Edward.

124. **Last years of Henry**—The king now had three children: Mary, the daughter of Catherine of Aragon; Elizabeth, daughter of Anne Boleyn; and his only son, Edward, the child of Jane Seymour. His obedient Parliament agreed to allow him to fix the succession. He made a will in which he provided that, first, Edward should rule, then Mary, then Elizabeth. The king had grown, in his later years, to an unwieldy size, and suffered constantly from a painful disease. He died in 1547. His reign is chiefly to be remembered for the change he made in the government of the church.

SUMMARY

Henry VIII came to the throne with the advantage of an unquestioned title and a full treasury. By his foreign policy, Henry avoided trouble with the continental powers. He ruled the land with an absolutism by which, indeed, quiet and order were secured, though the power of Parliament was greatly lessened. His interest in the new learning strengthened the influence of the Renaissance in England. His quarrel with Rome resulted in the complete separation of the English church from Rome. In this reign the sufferings of the poor were multiplied by the suppression of the monasteries, together with the spread of the custom of sheep-raising and "inclosing." Beggary and robbery increased in spite of severe penalties. By Henry's will the crown was to descend to Edward, Mary, and Elizabeth, in the order named.

3. Edward VI. 1547–1553

125. **Somerset is made Lord Protector.**—Edward VI, a delicate, studious lad, became king at the age of nine years. Henry VIII had, in his will, appointed a Council of sixteen men, who were to rule until the young king reached the age of eighteen. The majority of the Council were, however, reformers, and they at once disregarded the terms of the will, seized the power for themselves, and made Edward Seymour Lord Protector of the Kingdom. Seymour was now raised to the rank of Duke of Somerset.

126. **Trouble with Scotland.**—The first important event in the reign was a war with Scotland. After the battle of Flodden, border raids were made both by the English and by the Scots. In 1542, at Solway Moss, a Scottish army, about to invade England, was scattered, in a moment of confusion, by a few hundred English horsemen under Lord Dacre. James V was so disheartened at this disgrace that he died. He left the throne to his infant daughter, afterwards famous in history as Mary, Queen of Scots. Somerset now tried to arrange a marriage between Edward and the young queen. Perhaps the marriage might have been arranged by a man of tact, but Somerset's plan was an invasion of Scotland. Crossing the border with a large army, he totally defeated the Scots at Pinkie, and desolated the country with fire and sword. But as the Scots sent their young queen to France, where she married the Dauphin, as the eldest son of the king of France was called, the English won no real advantage.

Edward VI

127. **Somerset and the church.**—Somerset had always been strongly in sympathy with the Protestant reformers, and now that he was in power, he was prepared to make changes in the church that would favour Protestantism. Edward, too, had been brought up in the ideas of the reformers, and gave him every encouragement.

Though the people, owing to the spread of Protestant doctrines, were perhaps more ready for changes than they had been in Henry's time, yet the duke went on with his innovations far more rapidly than the greater number were prepared to follow him. The Six Articles were repealed, and such changes made in the form of worship as robbed it of many of its old forms and ceremonies. In 1549 Parliament authorized a Book of Common Prayer, prepared by Archbishop Cranmer, for use in all churches. It was taken in large part from the old service of the church, but it was in English, and the sound of the words was strange and unfamiliar. Instead of introducing the prayer book gradually, the duke declared that it must be used at once in all the churches. There was strong opposition to this in many parts of the country. One Sunday, in the church of a little village in Devon, when the English service was read for the first time, the people compelled the priest to put on his robes and say the mass in Latin. The revolt spread fast through both Devon and Cornwall, but the insurgents were quickly dispersed.

Henry VIII had suppressed the monasteries, but there was still much land left in the hands of the smaller religious corporations. These were confiscated by Parliament and became the plunder of the Protector and his friends.

128. **Internal troubles.**—Besides the quarrel over church reform, there were increasing difficulties between the farmers and the wealthy landholders about the inclosing of lands and the rise in rents. And most serious of all, the decline of farming had made food scarce, and many of the poorer classes were in distress. Prices were high on this account, and the evils of debasing the coinage were being more and more felt. Four shillings would not buy so much as one would in the time of Henry VII. So many labourers were

out of work that wages were low even when paid in this debased coin. A law was passed to punish vagrants, but, in spite of this, the vagrants and paupers increased. The law could not make men work when there was no work to be done. The criminal class also increased at an alarming rate; in fact, the more severe the laws, the more criminals there seemed to be. The discontent among the people broke out in rebellion in 1549. In Norfolk sixteen thousand men gathered under the lead of Robert Ket, a wealthy tanner. They proceeded to break down the hated fences and to kill the fat sheep and deer within. They were successful for a time and defeated the troops sent against them. Finally, the Earl of Warwick took command of the king's forces and dispersed the rebels with ruthless severity.

129. **Northumberland's administration.**—Somerset sympathized with the people and was slow in taking severe measures to put down the Norfolk revolt. This led to his fall; his opponents in the Council gained control and his power passed into the hands of his chief rival, the Earl of Warwick, afterwards created Duke of Northumberland. Two years later Somerset was executed on a charge of treason.

Under Northumberland the spoliation of the church continued, and further changes in doctrine were made. The prayer book was revised, and made much as it is to-day, although some slight changes were afterwards made in the reigns of Elizabeth and Charles II. Some few among the extreme Protestants suffered at the stake for heresy, but there was no general persecution for religious belief.

130. **The succession to the throne.**—By the will of Henry VIII, if all three of his children died without leaving any heirs, the crown was to go to the descendants of his younger sister **Mary.** One of Mary's granddaughters, a gentle, lovable girl named Jane Grey, had married Northumberland's son. The duke, who had great influence with the young king, now planned to make her queen of England. He persuaded Edward to make a will, setting aside both Mary and Elizabeth and giving the crown to Lady Jane Grey. The king had never been very strong, and, soon after this, in his sixteenth year, he died.

One day, in 1553, Lady Jane was informed that Edward was dead and that she was to be queen. She was only sixteen years of age, beautiful, and remarkable for her learning and accomplishments. She cared only for her books and her husband, and begged to be left with them. But her father-in-law was determined to sacrifice her to his ambitious plans, which never had any chance of success. Protestants and Roman Catholics united to defeat him; even his own troops deserted him. Parliament declared in favour of Mary, and the people of London at once gave her their allegiance. Northumberland and two others were executed, and Lady Jane Grey and her husband were sent to the Tower.

SUMMARY

The Duke of Somerset was made Lord Protector. Largely through his efforts, Protestantism gained great headway in England and a Book of Common Prayer was adopted. Somerset was overthrown by Northumberland and executed. The discontent of the people showed itself in several rebellions. Northumberland attempted to make Lady Jane Grey queen of England, but was unsuccessful.

4. MARY I. 1553–1558

131. **Mary and the church.**—In a few weeks after the imprisonment of the "Ten-days' Queen," Mary was crowned. She had had an unhappy life. Until she was almost grown up, she was treated with all the respect that could be shown to the daughter of a powerful king. Then, after Henry's divorce, everything was suddenly changed. Her mother was sent away and she herself was forced into retirement. Her unhappiness had been so associated with the changes in the church that she could hardly help feeling some bitterness against those who had brought them about. She was determined to restore the church to the position it had occupied when Henry VIII came to the throne. Parliament was almost as obedient to her as it had been to her father. It repealed the laws of Edward VI affecting the church, and restored the Six Articles of Henry VIII. For a

time, however, the queen still retained the title of Supreme Head of the Church. There was but little opposition on the part of the people to these changes, largely because they had had little voice in the introduction of the reforms under Edward.

132. **Mary's marriage.**—In the meantime, Parliament was anxious that Mary should marry. Through the troublous times of this age, the first thing in the minds of the nation seems to have been the wish for a firm, just control, and an undisputed succession to the throne, and they thought that if Mary had children, the crown would descend peacefully to them. They therefore wished her to marry at once. Parliament was anxious that her husband should be an Englishman, but when Charles V, king of Spain, proposed to her that she should marry his son Philip, she gladly consented, and a marriage treaty was arranged.

Mary I

Both the Parliament and the people of England strongly objected to the proposed Spanish match. They dreaded that, if the marriage should take place, they would be dragged into European wars to further the ambition of the king of Spain. Indeed so strong did the opposition become that there was a serious rebellion. Sir Thomas Wyatt roused the men of Kent, and for a time it looked as though he would succeed. But Mary acted promptly. She appealed to the people of London in a stirring speech and threw herself upon their protection. The next day twenty-five thousand men enlisted, and Wyatt, though he entered

London and fought till almost deserted, was taken prisoner. Lady Jane Grey and her husband were now executed, along with Wyatt and about one hundred others. An effort was made to connect Elizabeth with the plot and she was sent to the Tower. Nothing could be found, however, to show that she had had anything to do with it, and she was released.

The next Parliament consented to Mary's marriage with Philip, but did not give him any place in the government. The marriage took place in July, 1554. Mary was devoted to her husband, but Philip did not care for his wife and he was disappointed that he was not allowed any part in public affairs in England. After little more than a year's stay in England, he returned to Spain.

133. **Religious persecutions.**—Mary desired most strongly a complete reconciliation with the Pope, and, for the most part, Parliament was willing to do as she wished. The laws passed in Henry's reign against the supremacy of the Pope were repealed, and the statutes for the burning of heretics were revived. On one point, however, Parliament was unyielding; it would not give back the lands that had been taken from the monasteries. The greater part of these lands had been divided among various noble families, and in many cases the land had changed ownership more than once. Mary did not press this point, and Cardinal Pole was received in England as papal legate.

Mary's fervent zeal that all should conform to the old faith now led her to enforce relentlessly the laws against heretics. Among the first to suffer were Bishop Latimer, and Ridley, who had once been Bishop of London. "Play the man, Master Ridley," said Latimer, as he was dying, "we shall this day light up such a candle, by God's grace, in England, as I trust shall never be put out." Then came Bishop Hooper, Archbishop Cranmer, and about three hundred others. But the persecution had not the effect that Mary desired; it rather turned the sympathy of thousands towards the faith of those whom they had seen die so bravely.

134. **The last years of Mary's reign.**—Spain had been engaged in a war with France, and although England was not interested in the quarrel, Mary, through the influence of

her husband, was drawn into the war. The one possession that England still held in France was Calais. It had once been strongly fortified, but the defences had been neglected. The French, in 1558, attacked and captured the town. England no longer owned a foot of ground in the kingdom across the Channel. Mary grieved deeply. "When I die," she said, "Calais will be found engraven on my heart."

Mary's reign was drawing to a close, and the kingdom was in a most unhappy condition. Pirates swarmed along the coast; the navy was neglected; fortresses were unrepaired; there was no money in the treasury; commerce had almost ceased on account of wars and pirates. The people were weary of her rule. Her husband had neglected her; and the poor queen, long troubled by disease and now prostrated by the loss of Calais, died within the year.

SUMMARY

At Mary's accession the church was restored to the position that it had occupied when Henry VIII came to the throne. The proposed marriage of Mary with Philip of Spain roused much opposition and led to a rebellion under Sir Thomas Wyatt. Parliament, however, gave way and the marriage took place. Mary's fervent desire that all should conform to the old faith led to religious persecutions. During a war with France, Calais was lost to England.

5. ELIZABETH. 1558-1603

135. **Elizabeth's difficulties.**—The task before Elizabeth when she came to the throne was not an easy one. The treasury was empty, the people were discontented, and the whole nation was divided on religious questions. England was at war with France and without proper means of defence. Further, the Pope would not acknowledge Elizabeth's right to the throne; indeed, Mary of Scotland had already laid claim to the title. England was not strong enough to stand alone should her enemies unite against her. Time must be gained to replenish the treasury, to settle the re-

ligious difficulties, and to unify and strengthen the nation. The queen set herself resolutely to face her difficulties.

136. **Elizabeth and the church.**—At the opening of Elizabeth's reign, the division between the religious parties in England had become so marked that it was impossible to satisfy all her subjects. Probably the greater number of them would have been satisfied to return to the system of Henry VIII. But Elizabeth went further. Her first Parliament, in 1559, passed an Act of Supremacy, which declared the queen to be "the Supreme Governor of the Realm" in matters of church as well as of state. The prayer book of Edward VI, with some revisions, was adopted, and an Act of Uniformity passed, forbidding the use of any other form of public worship. Although the laws against heresy were repealed, the people were required to attend their parish church on Sunday under penalty of a fine.

Queen Elizabeth

Only those who held office were asked to take the oath required by the Act of Supremacy. Most of the clergy accepted the settlement, but only one of the bishops would acknowledge Elizabeth to be the head of the church. The remaining bishops were deprived of their sees and imprisoned, the vacant bishoprics being filled with those who were in sympathy with the queen. In 1663, the doctrine of the church was embodied in "Thirty-nine Articles," to which every clergyman was compelled to subscribe. But the changes in the government and doctrine of the church were made so quietly that there was little excitement in the country.

137. **Elizabeth's foreign policy.**—Elizabeth was a skilful diplomatist, yet all her diplomacy was needed to carry the country safely through the troubled years at the beginning of her reign. Her plan was to keep her enemies divided, until England became strong. The gravest danger she had to fear was the possibility of an alliance between France and Spain, the two great Roman Catholic powers of Europe, for if such a combination had been formed, it is not probable that England at this time could have resisted successfully. But Elizabeth felt that the rivalry between these two nations was so bitter that they could not agree to take united action against her. Moreover, Mary of Scotland, the heiress to the throne of England, was now the wife of the Dauphin of France, and should she succeed to the English throne, she would unite in her own person the crowns of England, Scotland and France. This would make France supreme in Europe and overshadow the power of Spain. The danger of such an alliance secured the neutrality of Philip, who was in fact anxious himself to enter into an alliance with England. In order to make certain of the aid of England in his plans for increasing the glory of Spain, he even proposed marriage with Elizabeth. Similar proposals came from Scotland and France. But Elizabeth for a time would give no definite answer to any of these offers of marriage; she had endless excuses for delay and postponement. She could, when the occasion demanded, decide promptly and act boldly; but this time her policy was delay, and this policy, in spite of the protests of her ministers, she pursued steadily, until the necessity to follow it no longer existed.

138. **Relations with Scotland.**—Peace was made with France in the summer of 1559, but shortly afterwards the French king died and the Dauphin succeeded to the throne as Francis II. Mary Stuart, who had already laid claim to the crown of England, was now queen of both Scotland and France, and there was every prospect of an alliance between

the two kingdoms for the purpose of dethroning Elizabeth. In Scotland a fierce religious struggle was in progress. The Reformation had gained such headway in that country, that the regent, Mary of Guise, the mother of the queen, was engaged, with the aid of French troops, in a desperate attempt to stamp it out. The leading Reformers had, in 1557, united in a league known as the "Lords of the Congregation," and offered a determined resistance. Their zeal was strengthened by the return of the famous John Knox, who was listened to by the Scottish people as they had never listened to any man before. Under his inspiration the people everywhere rose in arms. The Lords of the Congregation, who had now become strong opponents of a French alliance, appealed to England for aid. Elizabeth could not allow the French to become supreme in Scotland, and, accordingly, a fleet was sent to assist the Reformers, who were besieging the French in Leith. The French army was compelled to surrender. Finally, in 1560, a treaty was made at Edinburgh, by which it was agreed that the French troops should leave Scotland and that Mary should abandon all claims to the throne of England. Shortly afterwards Parliament established Presbyterianism as the religion of Scotland.

JOHN KNOX

In 1561, Mary, left a widow by the death of Francis, returned to Scotland to take up the reins of government. She was a Roman Catholic, but her promise not to interfere with Presbyterianism united the people in her favour, while her youth and beauty won all their hearts. Her presence in Scotland with her people at her feet was very disquieting to Elizabeth. While Mary was queen of France, Elizabeth was safe, as no Englishman wished a French queen to rule over his country. But now that Francis was dead and Mary on the Scottish throne, there was cause for alarm. Elizabeth did not intend to allow Mary to reach Scotland till she signed the treaty of Edinburgh;

but Mary refused to sign, and succeeded in reaching Scotland in safety.

Mary began her reign well, although she soon got into difficulties. She married her cousin, Lord Darnley, but he was so foolish and contemptible that she came to despise him. He was intensely jealous of her, and in a fit of rage, he murdered her private secretary, David Rizzio, almost in her presence. It was not many months before Darnley, too, was murdered. Whether the charge was true or not, many believed that the crime was committed by the Earl of Bothwell. He had just obtained a divorce from his wife, and when, shortly after the murder, Mary married him, many of her people believed that she had connived at the crime. The Scots were thoroughly aroused and took up arms. Mary called out the royal forces, but they refused to stand by her, and she was taken prisoner. She was carried to Lochleven Castle, and there she abdicated the throne in favour of her baby son. The baby, one year old, was proclaimed James VI of Scotland, and Mary's half-brother, Murray, was appointed regent of the kingdom.

MARY STUART

Mary's friends, however, were not idle and planned her escape. This was soon effected, and in three days she was at the head of an army. In 1568 she met the forces of the regent at Langside, near Glasgow, and was defeated; she then fled to England, where she threw herself on the protection of Elizabeth. The English queen was in a difficult position; she did not dare to alienate the Protestants in England and in Scotland by restoring Mary to her throne; it was equally dangerous to allow her to escape to France, or to detain her in England. Elizabeth finally chose the latter alternative, and Mary was kept in honourable confinement.

139. **The enmity of Spain.**—At this time Spain was the greatest power in the world, and her strength was owing largely to her enterprise on the seas, and especially to her discoveries and conquests in America. The vast wealth of the mines of Mexico and Peru enabled the Spanish king to carry out many great plans for the extension of his kingdom. Philip now ruled over Spain, Italy, the Netherlands, and America. He was ambitious and intolerant, and was determined to make all men under his rule think alike on matters of religion. His great plan was first to conquer the Netherlands, then France, and finally England.

The attempt to subdue the Netherlands provoked a fierce resistance, which all the power of Spain could not crush. In France, Philip joined the Catholic party to prevent the French Protestants, or Huguenots, from helping the Dutch. This forced Elizabeth to send aid to Holland; for if Philip should conquer the Dutch, he would join France in attacking England, and attempt to put Mary on the throne. An army was sent in 1586, under the Earl of Leicester, but he was not a skilful soldier, and little was accomplished. In an attack on Zutphen, his gallant nephew, Sir Philip Sidney, the noblest gentleman in England, fell. When he lay wounded on the battlefield, a cup of water was offered him; but, seeing another suffering soldier near him, he said, "Take it; thy necessity is greater than mine."

140. **The English seamen.**—But England had begun an attack on Philip which threatened to ruin his treasury. English sailors were beginning to cruise in the Caribbean Sea and the Gulf of Mexico, and seize the Spanish treasure ships from America.

The Spaniards claimed for themselves not only Mexico and the places where they had settled, but the whole of America, and they treated Englishmen who ventured into these western seas as intruders and robbers, who deserved the severest punishment. But the profits of the trade were so great that Englishmen took the risks and defied the Spaniards. Elizabeth also encouraged among her seamen a desire to discover new lands, and this had a good effect on the spirits of bold men. Nor must it be forgotten that ever since the time of Columbus, every great navigator cherished a hope of finding a short path to China by sailing west from Europe. The desire for wealth, hatred of Spain, a hope of new discoveries, and a desire to find a short route to China, all united in attracting courageous men to a seafaring life. The result was that England was developing a race of hardy seamen, bold, daring, and courageous, who were afraid neither to venture into unknown seas nor to fight their enemies at home and abroad.

Among these daring seamen two stand out conspicuously, John Hawkins and Francis Drake. Hawkins was a young sailor of Devon, who had traded with the Spaniards in the Canary Islands. In 1562 he made a voyage to the coast of Africa, and when there the idea came to him to buy a shipload of prisoners from the native chiefs and to sell them in the West Indies as labourers. He made several voyages in connection with this trade, exchanging the slaves for sugar, ginger, pearls, and hides, which found a ready sale in Europe. The queen herself invested in his second voyage and shared the profits. Hawkins was knighted by Elizabeth, and became captain of the port of Plymouth.

Francis Drake was also a man of Devon. In 1577, with five ships, he set sail for South America. He coasted southwards and passed through the Straits of Magellan. Off Chile he took a Spanish treasure ship, and further north he overhauled the great treasure galleon which was sent annually to Spain. Sailing still northwards, Drake landed on the California coast, then struck

SIR FRANCIS DRAKE

westwards across the Pacific, returning to England in 1580 by way of the Cape of Good Hope. He was thus the first Englishman to make the circuit of the globe. No honour was too great for the successful navigator. He was knighted, and Elizabeth herself attended a banquet in her honour on board his ship. Philip, of course, was furious and demanded the return of his treasure. But the queen, after allowing Drake and his crew a liberal share, and accepting a portion for herself, stored the remainder in the the Tower until she and Philip should have a settlement. This settlement, however, was never made.

141. **The execution of Mary, Queen of Scots.**—From the time that Mary had fled to England, she had been a continual source of trouble. The Duke of Norfolk, the head of the Roman Catholic nobility of England, wished to marry her, but his plan was discovered and he himself was imprisoned. In 1569 a rebellion broke out in the north under the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland. The rising was unsuccessful; the two earls escaped to Scotland, but many of their followers were executed. In the next year, Pope Pius V excommunicated Elizabeth, and absolved her subjects from their oath of allegiance. This made the position of the loyal Roman Catholics exceedingly difficult; if they remained loyal to their queen, they must be disloyal to their church. The action of the Pope led to harsher treatment of the Roman Catholics in England. In 1571 Parliament passed an Act declaring any one guilty of high treason who attempted to deprive Elizabeth of her throne, and a further Act prohibiting, under the severest penalties, the introduction of papal bulls into England. But even these stringent laws did not put a stop to the plots to place Mary on the throne. After the failure of a plot in 1572, the Duke of Norfolk, who was proven to have been concerned in it, was executed.

In 1580 an attempt was made by the Jesuits, the great Roman Catholic missionary organization, to win England back to the ancient faith. Whether their aims were religious or revolutionary, the government was too angry or too anxious to enquire. They were driven from the kingdom, imprisoned, reduced to poverty, tortured, executed. It is said that two hundred priests were put to death.

In 1586 the last and most desperate conspiracy to release Mary was formed. Anthony Babington and several young men who were connected with the court agreed to assassinate Elizabeth. The Duke of Parma, Philip's chief general, was to invade England, marry Mary, and rule the country as the vassal of Spain. The spies of Sir Francis Walsingham, the secretary of state, whose duty it was to guard the life of the queen, managed to gain the confidence of the conspirators, and to make copies of the letters passing between them and Mary. When Walsingham had obtained evidence that the Scottish queen was a party to the plot, the conspirators were seized and fourteen of them put to death. Mary was spared for a time, but it was believed that Elizabeth's life would never be safe while her rival was alive. She was accused of having consented to the assassination of Elizabeth, tried by a commission of peers, found guilty, and beheaded in Fotheringay Castle, February 8th, 1587.

142. **The war with Spain.**—Philip had long been making preparations to invade England; he now put forth every effort to achieve his object. He had been angry at Elizabeth's refusal of his hand in marriage, and had been very much incensed at the help given by the queen to his rebellious subjects in the Netherlands. Moreover, he had to revenge the loss of his treasure ships and a long series of insults offered to his possessions in America. As long as England was unconquered he could not realize his dream of bringing Europe back to the old religion, nor could he overlook the treatment given the Roman Catholic priests in England. The execution of Mary removed every trace of hesitation from his mind.

But if Philip had waited nearly thirty years to wage war against the stubborn English queen, and if every year of waiting had given him additional reasons to begin the conflict, every year had also made England stronger and better prepared to meet him. He must now fight a new England. Never had any country made more rapid progress than was made in England from 1558 to 1588. The nation had grown from childhood to a lusty manhood. The population had increased because there had been peace. The wealth of the people had multiplied many times, while the frugality of Elizabeth had left her people free from burdensome taxes. The discoveries of Drake and other navigators had extended commerce, and had trained as bold a race of seamen as ever sailed the seas. But strong as the nation was in men, money, and other material resources, its greatest strength was the bold, confident, and loyal spirit of the people. They had differences over religion, but they were united in a love for home and country. Englishmen, both Roman Catholics and Protestants, supported the queen, and men whose fathers would have burned one another for a difference in creed, stood side by side to resist the attack of Spain.

Night and day the Spanish shipbuilders worked. A great fleet was made ready at Lisbon, and at Cadiz other warships were being built, while every day more arms and provisions were collected for the conquest. The Spanish term for *fleet* was *armada*, and the Spaniards were so sure that England could not resist their attack that they called their fleet the Invincible Armada. Early in 1587 it was well known in England that the Armada was ready to sail. Drake put to sea with a small fleet, sailed boldly into the harbour of Cadiz and burned, sank, or destroyed more than eighty of Philip's new ships. He then captured a large Spanish treasure ship near the Azores, and returned to England. This delayed the Spaniards for a full year, and that year gave England ample time for preparation.

The English navy consisted of only thirty warships, not one of them so large as the smallest of the Spanish fleet. The government asked London for five thousand men and fifteen vessels, and the answer came, "We entreat you to accept from us ten thousand men and thirty vessels." Every little seashore village sent out its ships. Men of all ranks and from all over the land hurried to join the forces that were gathering together near London. Lord Howard of Effingham, a Roman Catholic, was made admiral of the fleet, and Drake served under him as vice-admiral. A land army formed at Tilbury, on the south coast, and the militia mustered in swarms. All England was aroused.

Philip's plans for 1588 were far-reaching and complete. He had ready at Dunkirk, under the Duke of Parma, an army of 30,000 veteran troops supplied with boats for transport. These were for the actual conquest of England, and they were to be brought over under the protection of the greatest fleet that up to this time had ever put to sea. It consisted of 130 men-of-war carrying 20,000 soldiers and 8,000 seamen. These vessels were, for the most part, immense floating castles with several decks, and they mounted 2,500 cannon. The great Spanish admiral, Santa Cruz, had just died, and Philip thrust the supreme command upon Medina Sidonia, a grandee of the highest rank, but of very little ability and with absolutely no knowledge of either ships or war.

THE SPANISH ARMADA

On July 29th the sails of the Armada were seen from the English coast, and soon the beacon fires flashed the news all over the country. The Armada came on in gallant style. The stately Spanish ships were formed in a crescent stretching seven miles from horn to horn. The English allowed them to move up into the Channel, and then, with a favourable wind, they slipped out of Plymouth and hung on their rear. Now began a running fight that lasted over a week. The saucy English boats could fire four shots for the Spaniards' one. They would boldly draw up under an immense Spanish galleon, fire a broadside, and draw away to fire another before the unwieldy Don could get ready for action. Several Spanish ships were sunk and some driven on the coast.

The Spaniards now anchored off Calais, and Lord Howard decided on a plan to drive them into the open sea. He therefore sent eight fire-ships among them with the tide at midnight. The Spanish sailors cut their cables and put to sea in confusion. The English followed, and never gave up the fight until their last pound of powder was spent. By this time the Armada had passed the Straits of Dover and had left Dunkirk and Parma's thirty thousand men far in the rear. Many of the Spanish ships were captured or helpless, and few of them had either ammunition or sufficient food. To return by the English Channel was out of the question; so the Spanish admiral decided to lead the fleet home by sailing around the north of Scotland and Ireland. But the wind and the waves proved even more destructive than the English, and thousands of Spaniards were dashed upon the rocks of the Hebrides and the Irish coast. About fifty ships and ten thousand famished, fever-stricken men reached Spain.

The joy in England over this glorious victory knew no bounds. With the defeat of the Armada the supremacy of the seas passed from Spain to England, and from that day to this no power has been able seriously to question her rule.

England now turned invader, and for the rest of Elizabeth's reign Spain was mercilessly plundered. Her colonies were raided, her towns sacked, and countless wealth carried away to England. Drake died in 1596, while on one of his cruises against the Spaniards, and Hawkins died about the same time. In these wars many valiant deeds were done. Among the most celebrated is the fight of Sir Richard Grenville and his small ship against fifty-three Spanish ships of war. For fifteen hours he held out, until his ship was barely afloat, his powder gone, forty men killed and himself desperately wounded. Tennyson tells the story in stirring verse in his ballad of "The Revenge." The war was brought to an end by the sack of Cadiz in 1596.

143. **Church troubles.**—During the latter part of Elizabeth's reign the Roman Catholics were treated with great severity. Priests and laymen who would not abandon their religion were banished, and about fifty, including two women, were put to death. The Court of High Commission was established to settle questions relating to the church. This commission bore with special hardness upon a new body now coming into notice in England, the Puritans.

These Puritans were extreme Protestants who took special objection to the pomp and ceremonies which were retained in the church service. They also objected to the great power given to bishops and other church officers, and to the large revenues attached to some clerical positions. So long as England lay under the shadow of a great war with Spain, the Puritans were treated with forbearance. Hundreds of their clergy conducted the church service very much as they pleased. But as Elizabeth grew stronger and better able to assume a bold tone towards her enemies abroad, she gradually asserted her authority to bring the church worship to a uniform standard. In 1593 severe penal laws were passed by Parliament. Clergy who refused to obey the strict letter of the law regarding the service were turned out of their churches, and, in some cases, imprisoned. Laymen who refused to attend church were imprisoned; if they refused to conform within three months they were banished, and, if they returned to England, they were put to death. The law was so rigorously enforced that many of the Puritans left the country to await in exile the beginning of a new reign.

144. **Discoveries and colonization.**—In addition to Hawkins and Drake, many other Englishmen made voyages of discovery during Elizabeth's reign. Sir Martin Frobisher made many voyages to the New World, and tried to reach India by the "north-west passage," north of North America;

Thomas Cavendish followed Drake in 1586, the second Englishman to sail around the world; Sir Walter Raleigh planted a settlement in America and named it Virginia, in honour of the virgin queen; Sir Humphrey Gilbert made many voyages of colonization, and perished near the coast of America while on one of his expeditions. All of these men and many others equally daring had great faith in the future of England as a sea-power. As Raleigh said on one occasion, "Whosoever commands the sea commands the trade; whosoever commands the trade of the world commands the riches of the world, and consequently the world itself."

145. **Ireland.**—The English had never been able to subdue permanently more than a small strip of the Irish coast around Dublin. There was constant strife between the English settlers and the native Irish. Henry VII had sent Sir Edward Poynings with an army, and he caused the Irish Parliament to pass, in 1494, the famous Poynings Act, by which all laws passed by the English Parliament were declared to be in force in Ireland, and all measures, before being submitted to the Irish body, had to be approved by the king. Henry VIII, except in religious matters, treated the Irish with kindness and consideration, and tried to reconcile the Irish chieftains to his rule. In the latter part of Elizabeth's reign, the young Earl of Essex, a favourite of the queen, was sent to Ireland to put down a rising in Ulster begun by the Irish Earl of Tyrone, who invited the Spanish to help him. Essex wasted his time, and nothing was done. On his return to England, he attempted to stir up a rebellion, but was arrested and beheaded. Lord Mountjoy, who succeeded him in the Irish command, put down the rebellion with cruel severity. A terrible famine forced the Irish to submit, and a vigorous effort was now made to destroy the tribal system and establish English courts.

146. **Elizabeth's ministers.**—For forty years the most trusted adviser of Elizabeth was her able and far-seeing minister Sir William Cecil, Lord Burleigh, and with him was associated Sir Francis Walsingham and Sir Nicholas Bacon. Although she had many favourites, such as the

Earls of Leicester and Essex, on whom she lavished honours and attentions, yet on any serious question of state she always turned to her trusted ministers. Frequently she did not accept their advice, and indeed in many cases her wisdom was greater than theirs; but she knew that in what they advised, they had at heart her own interests and those of England. When Burleigh died he was succeeded by his son Sir Robert Cecil, who remained chief minister until the death of the queen.

Lord Burleigh

147. **Character of Elizabeth.**—It was evident in 1603 that the reign of the great queen was fast drawing to a close. Lord Burleigh and the Earl of Leicester were dead, and she mourned the fate of Essex. She sat for days propped up with pillows and refused to go to bed. When Sir Robert Cecil told her she must go to bed, she turned upon him in a rage. "Must!" she said; "is must a word to be addressed to princes? Little man, little man, thy father, if he had lived, durst not have used that word." She died in 1603. Just before her death she expressed a wish that James of Scotland should be her successor.

Queen Elizabeth was well educated, witty, fond of handsome clothes and gorgeous pageants of all sorts. She was so vain that no one could praise her as much as she thought she deserved. She had a hot temper, and when she was angry she would beat her maids of honour and box the ears of her courtiers. She did not like to spend money, and when her brave sailors were driving away the Armada, it was a great struggle to persuade her to spend what was necessary. Her worst fault was that her word could not be trusted. On the other hand, she really loved her country, and she meant sincerely to do her best for England. She chose wise men for her advisers. She was a Tudor and meant to have her own way, but she invariably yielded when she saw that she was acting against the wishes of the nation. She had many great qualities—wisdom, foresight, moderation; and these qualities were just the ones that the nation needed at that time to unite England and to make the country great in politics, discovery, literature, and in material and social progress.

148. **Parliament under Elizabeth.**—During the reigns of the early Tudors, Parliament was little more than an instrument for registering the personal will of the sovereign. In Elizabeth's reign, however, the House of Commons assumed an importance and independence that it had not possessed for many years. The members were no longer content to do as they were told, but vigorously insisted upon the full and free discussion of all public questions. There were but thirteen sessions of Parliament in the forty-four years of Elizabeth's reign, but on many occasions, during these sessions, the Commons ventured to dispute the will of the queen and even to register its protests against her actions. The representatives of the people in Parliament were beginning to think for themselves, and were not slow in giving expression to their desires.

In 1601 Parliament gained a conspicuous victory over the crown. Elizabeth, as much as possible, avoided taxing the people directly. One way she had of raising money was by the sale of monopolies. For example, the Earl of Essex was the only man in England who was allowed to sell sweet wines, and for this privilege he paid a certain sum to the queen. So many monopolies were granted that they became a great burden, and Parliament petitioned her to make an end of them. When she saw that Parliament was determined, she gracefully gave way and promised to remedy the abuse.

149. **Material progress under Elizabeth.**—Manufacturing increased rapidly during the reign of Elizabeth. During the bloody wars of Philip in the Netherlands many spinners and weavers fled to England; in one year alone the number was thirty thousand. Elizabeth welcomed them, and gave them lands, on condition that every one of them should employ at least one English apprentice. It soon came about that instead of England sending wool to Flanders and buying it back in the form of cloth, the cloth was made in England, and sold to the Flemish merchants, who again sold it to the merchants in the rest of Europe. Elizabeth also called in all the base coin in circulation, and had it recoined to make it worth its face value.

The English seamen were daring navigators, and carried the English flag through every sea. Commerce branched out in every direction; north-east to Russia; westwards to America; south-east to the Levant; eastwards to India, China, and Japan; and south along the coast of Africa. During the reign of Elizabeth the foundations for the commercial supremacy of England were laid broad and deep.

There was much improvement also in the agricultural districts. Wise laws were passed restraining the inclosure of land fit for agriculture; and improved methods of farming made the land more productive. The farmers were growing in wealth and importance.

150. **Social progress under Elizabeth.**—The reign of Elizabeth was a time when great riches were often easily acquired. This led to lavish spending and to many changes in the customs of the people. They began to build better houses, and many of the fine old homes in England to-day were partly built in that period. Glass was becoming common, and people had more sunlight in their houses. They ate more meat and spent vast sums on dress. Parliament, indeed, had to pass laws regulating the dress of the people. Wigs were worn by all who could afford them. Pewter dishes for the poor and silver for the rich were replacing those of wood. Houses were built with chimneys instead of with mere holes in the roof to let the smoke escape. The wealthy began to use costly tapestries to adorn the bare

walls, but the floors were still generally covered with rushes, which became very filthy. Pillows, which until now were considered fit only for sick women, came into common use. At first only the queen had a coach; the common method of travel was on horseback or in sedan chairs. Wood and coal formed the fuel; but it was not lawful to burn coal in London while the Parliament met, lest the smoke and gas would injure the health of the members of Parliament.

In the early part of Elizabeth's reign there were so many men out of employment that they were a constant menace to the state; they were discontented and ready at any time to break out in rebellion. A serious attempt was made under Elizabeth to deal with the problem. The country was growing more prosperous, and fewer men were out of employment, but still there was much distress. In 1601 a Poor Law was passed, by which each parish was compelled to support its own poor out of a rate levied on the landed property in the district. The money so raised was to be used in providing employment for those able to work and relief for those who were sick or infirm. This law was the basis of the system of poor relief in England until 1834.

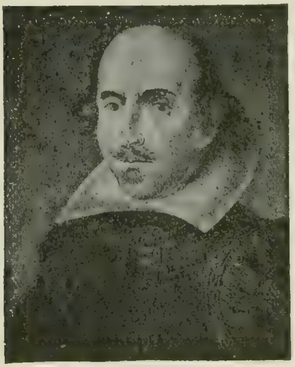
Hawking, hunting, and bull and bear baiting were favourite amusements. There were many holidays. Then the country people gathered in the nearest village for shooting, wrestling, football, and quoits. These sports were followed by dancing, games, and masquerading, the whole concluding with a feast. Christenings, betrothals, weddings and even funerals were made the occasion of much feasting. It was certainly a merry England in the time of Elizabeth.

151. **Literature under Elizabeth.**—The victory over the Armada gave the English nation a magnificent sense of confidence. A great widening of ideas came with the discovery and exploration of the New World. Every one was eager to make a voyage; and it is no wonder, for there were marvellous stories of a fountain in Florida whose waters would make an old man young again, of silver mines whose richness was without parallel, and of rivers whose waters rolled over precious stones. No one knew what miracle might come next. The English were eager and excited,

and their imagination was roused to the highest pitch. In most ages only a few men write well, but in those days many wrote so excellently that Elizabeth's reign is called the "Golden Age" of English literature.

There were many short poems and many plays. Nearly all the poems written in Elizabeth's time are light and merry and musical. Among them are many songs, as the English, even from the earliest days, liked to listen to music, and at this time everybody sang. Moreover, people would not sing nonsense; they would have real poetry for their songs.

One of the most famous poems of the day was a long one named "The Faërie Queene," by Edmund Spenser. He is sometimes called "the poet's poet," because his verse is so harmonious. It sounds musical, indeed, even to one who does not understand the words. The poem is a sort of double allegory, for the heroine represents not only goodness and beauty but also Queen Elizabeth.



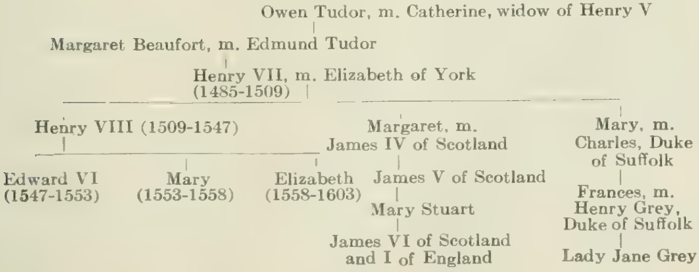
William Shakespeare

Even better than the short poems were the plays. The old mystery plays went on far into Elizabeth's reign, though they were no longer acted by priests, but by guilds, or companies of tradesmen. There were no books that were at all like the novels of our time. It may be that life moved so rapidly with its discoveries and its victories, and that Englishmen were so eager and so enthusiastic that they could not be satisfied to listen to a story; they must see it acted out before them. As the age went on, the characters of the plays became more and more like real men and women. There were also changes in the manner of writing. Before this, most authors had felt that the lines of a play must rhyme, but Marlowe ridiculed the custom and wrote his plays in the unrhymed verse that Shakespeare uses. A little later, Ben Jonson wrote not only many plays, but also a kind of drama called a masque. The masques had hardly any plot; but audiences enjoyed them because they were beautiful and poetical, and because they had elaborate scenery, while the regular plays had scarcely any. Many authors wrote plays and exceedingly good ones, but the greatest of all these authors was Shakespeare, partly because he could use words so skilfully that no one seems able to improve upon his way of expressing a thought, but chiefly because he knew better than any one else just how different persons would feel and act under different circumstances. One maker of plays was almost as good as he in one respect, and another in some other respect, but Shakespeare was greatest in all respects.

SUMMARY

The accession of Elizabeth was welcome to England, but the poverty of the crown, the three opposing religious parties at home, and the foes of the country abroad, made her position a difficult one. After the conspiracy in behalf of Mary, Queen of Scots, had been terminated by her execution, and the attempts of Spain to conquer England had been ended by the defeat of the Armada, a sense of freedom filled the land. England was "Mistress of the Seas," and she had no longer any fear of becoming a province of another country. The discoveries of Drake, Frobisher, Hawkins, and others widened the boundaries of the known world. There were many men who could fight, many who could govern, many who could write, and not a few who seemed able to succeed in one line as well as in another. There was also an increasing freedom of thought. Of greater value than victories on sea or on land was the literary ability that was in this reign so widely diffused, and that found its highest manifestation in the plays of Shakespeare. An important factor in the greatness of England was the queen herself, with her intellectual ability, her wisdom in choosing advisers, and her sincere love of England.

THE HOUSE OF TUDOR



CHAPTER VII

THE HOUSE OF STUART

1603–1714

1. JAMES I. 1603–1625

152. **Character of James I.**—The heir to Elizabeth's throne was James, son of Mary, Queen of Scots, the child to whom she had resigned her kingdom when she was a prisoner at Lochleven Castle. He was now thirty-seven years of age, and from his looks and manner no one would have guessed that he was the son of Queen Mary. Awkward and clumsy in person, he was a most undignified figure for a king. Though he was confident of his own judgment and impatient of advice, he was easily led by favourites, on whom he lavished money without stint. His mind was naturally acute, and he was vain of his learning which was really very great; but he never won the sympathy of the people whom he had come to govern.

JAMES I

153. **James and the church.**—The first question in the minds of James's new subjects was, which church he would favour. The Roman Catholics hoped that out of regard for his mother's belief, he would make lief in England easier for them, and the Puritans hoped that he would have a feeling of fellowship with them, because he had been brought up among the Scottish Presbyterians. One thousand Puritan ministers at once presented him with a

petition asking that they might be allowed to preach without a surplice, to have more and better preaching, and a stricter observance of the Sabbath.

James summoned representatives of the Puritan misisters to meet, at Hampton Court, an assembly of bishops to discuss the question in his presence. When he saw that some of the Puritans wished to have no bishops, he showed determined opposition. "No bishop, no king," said he, and not an inch would he move from that position, for he believed that if they thought a church might be governed without bishops, they would next think a kingdom might be governed without a king. He finally lost patience and declared that the Puritans should conform to the church of England, or he would "harry them out of the land, or else do worse." The one benefit that came from this conference was a new translation of the Bible. This was completed in 1611, and is the one now in common use.

154. **The Gunpowder Plot, 1605.**—The Roman Catholics were greatly disappointed when they found that the severe laws against them were not to be relaxed, but, in fact, were to be more rigorously enforced. Many priests were banished from the kingdom, and those who refused to attend the service of the church of England were heavily fined.

In despair of having their grievances removed by legal means, a few desperate men, led by Robert Catesby, formed a plot to blow up the House of Parliament with gunpowder. A cellar under the building was rented, and great quantities of powder were stored there, hidden under wood and coal. It was arranged that on the day of the opening of Parliament one man should slip into the cellar and light the pile. The conspirators hoped that king, nobles, and bishops would be destroyed in a moment. They had a long time to wait, since, on one ground or another, the opening of Parliament was put off for a year. At last, however, the time came; the day was set on which Parliament should convene. The hopes of the conspirators rose higher, for they believed that soon their enemies would be destroyed. But just before Parliament was to meet, one of the conspirators wrote an unsigned letter to warn his brother-in-law to stay away from the meeting, for, he said, "this Parliament shall receive a terrible blow, and shall not see who hurt them." The letter was put into the hands of the king, and its meaning was unravelled.

Soldiers searched the cellar and seized Guy Fawkes, who was to touch off the powder. Other plotters took arms, but were pursued and killed or captured. The prisoners were executed. The Gunpowder Plot was known only to a few men; but, in the mind of the people, the Roman Catholics were to blame, and the laws against them became more rigorous than ever.

155. **The "divine right of kings."**—James I brought into England a new idea as to the power of a king. The English people held that a king should not act contrary to the laws of the country; but James believed that he was above the law and could do as he thought proper. His favourite expression was "God makes the king; the king makes the law." On one occasion, when Parliament offered him some advice, he became very angry and told the members that, as it was blasphemy to dispute what God might do, so it was sedition in subjects to dispute the will of the king. This theory that a king derives his power directly from God is sometimes called "the divine right of kings."

In Scotland the Presbyterians and the powerful nobles had given James little power and little money. In England, however, he expected to have the same nearly absolute power as Henry VIII and Elizabeth had had. During the reign of these two able sovereigns, the power of the people had slumbered. Though the sovereigns had had their own way, Parliaments had always consented. When James attempted to have his way without the approval of Parliament, trouble began.

156. **Trouble with Parliament.**—James, like Edward II, had undeserving favourites on whom he lavished gifts and places of honour. He seemed to have no idea that a king should be careful how he spent the money that the taxation of his subjects had put into his hands. Immense

amounts were squandered, partly in revelry and in amusements that the Puritans considered disgraceful. The result was that the king was constantly in need of money, and frequently appealed to Parliament to help him.

From the very beginning of his reign James quarrelled with his Parliament. He attempted to interfere with the right of the Commons to decide a disputed election, but the House insisted on its rights. More than once during his reign, they refused to grant money unless their grievances were redressed, and sometimes the king would dissolve the House rather than grant their requests. At one time, seven years passed without a meeting of Parliament.

Under these circumstances, James was forced to obtain money as best he could. The old privileges of the Norman kings relating to "wardship" of minors had never been legally abolished. He agreed to surrender these privileges for £200,000 a year, but before the agreement was concluded Parliament was dissolved, and the king's urgent need of money led him to exact the feudal dues to the last penny. In addition, "monopolies" were revived, and "benevolences," which had been declared illegal, were extorted by means of the Star Chamber Court. Customs duties were levied without the consent of Parliament. Titles of honour were openly sold to all who chose to buy. The country groaned under these exactions, but the king continued, for the most part, to do as he pleased. The Parliament of 1621, however, compelled him to cease a number of his illegal acts, and went so far as to imprison and fine the lord chancellor, Francis Bacon, who had been convicted of accepting money from suitors who had cases to be tried in his court.

157. **James and Spain.**—James had married his daughter Elizabeth to Frederick, a Protestant prince who ruled over one of the German principalities. The English people were eager to give this prince aid against his Roman Catholic enemies, but James did not wish to offend the king of Spain, with whom it was his policy to make an alliance.

Just at this time Sir Walter Raleigh, who had been imprisoned in the Tower on a charge of conspiracy to dethrone the king, made a proposal to James. He stated that he knew of the existence of a gold mine in Guiana from which great riches might be obtained, and he offered, if he were freed from prison, to lead an expedition to take possession. He was allowed to go, but was under strict orders not to molest the Spaniards who were in the neighbourhood. James, however, told the Spanish ambassador that Raleigh was on the way to America, so that the Spaniards were ready to oppose him when he landed. He was forced into a fight in which his son was killed; but the gold mine was not found. When he came home, in 1618, he was beheaded on the old charge of treason, although most Englishmen believed that he was executed to please the king of Spain. "God has made nobler heroes, but he never made a finer gentleman than Walter Raleigh."

Sir Walter Raleigh

James was eager to marry his son Charles to the Infanta of Spain; the dowry would be large, and he hoped that the alliance would make him powerful in Europe, and enable him to restore his son-in-law Frederick, who had been driven from his dominions. The real ruler of England at this time was George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, who had been raised from an obscure position to be the greatest peer in the realm. Buckingham was just as determined as the king to carry out the Spanish marriage and thus enable his master to govern the country independent of Parliament. The wrath of the nation was aroused when Charles—"Baby Charles," his father called him—set off to visit Spain, accompanied by the duke. But their reception at the Spanish court pleased neither the prince nor the duke, and they returned to England eager to declare war against Spain. Negotiations were then begun for a marriage with one of the French princesses whom Charles had met on his journey. The people were so pleased that the Spanish marriage had been broken off and so rejoiced at the prospect of a war with Spain that they were eager to assist in every way. In the midst of the preparations for war, however, the king died.

THE DUKE OF BUCKINGHAM

158. **Planting colonies.**—Up to this time the English had been a stay-at-home people. From now onwards they began to plant colonies and to make settlements in every quarter of the globe. During the reign of James I there were two classes of men who turned their eyes to the wonderful country across the Atlantic. The first was a company of merchants who remembered the stories that had been told about the vast quantities of gold and silver that lay hidden in the unexplored lands. In 1609 these men founded a colony at Jamestown, Virginia, lately discovered by Sir Walter Raleigh, and named by him in honour of the virgin queen. This was the first permanent English colony on the North American continent. The second class settled much farther to the north. They were a band of Puritans who, to obtain freedom to worship as they pleased, had left their homes in England and had emigrated to Holland. They were not contented in a foreign land, and, after a long delay, they secured permission to cross the ocean and to settle in America. In 1620 these "Pilgrim Fathers" landed at Plymouth, and laid the foundations of what is known as New England.

Before 1600 commerce with India was in the hands of the Turkey Company which carried goods overland from the Indian Ocean to the Mediterranean Sea. The commerce with the East by sea was largely in the hands of the Dutch.

On the last day of the sixteenth century Elizabeth granted a charter to the "Company of London Merchants" for trade in the East Indies. The charter was renewed from time to time, and several voyages gave the company great profits. Finally, in 1612, the English obtained permission from the Great Mogul of India to open a warehouse at Surat on the west coast. This was the origin of Britain's Indian empire.

159. **Ireland.**—At the accession of James I, Ireland was settling down to some sort of order. The power of the chieftains was largely gone, and justice was everywhere administered in the name of the king. The fear that they were to be deprived of their lands was the chief cause of a plot against James led by two Irish earls, Tyrone and Tyrconnel. The earls were convicted of treason, and fled from the country; a vast extent of land in the north of Ireland was declared to be confiscated to the crown, and the land was divided up among English and Scottish Protestants. The native Irish had either to seek other homes or to remain as tenants where they had formerly been owners. The new settlers soon made Ulster a rich and prosperous district, but the hatred of the Irish for England was very much increased.

SUMMARY

When James came to the throne, Roman Catholics and Puritans each hoped for his favour, but his support was given to the church of England. Puritan clergymen appealed for freedom in church ceremonies, but the only good result of the Hampton Court conference was a new translation of the Bible. The discovery of the "Gunpowder Plot" prevented the destruction of the king and of both Houses of Parilament. James attempted to govern as far as he could without a Parliament, and tried to arrange a marriage for his son with the Infanta of Spain. Raleigh was sacrificed to Spanish hatred. Settlements were founded in America and in India. James's favourite idea was the "divine right of kings," but his weakness and folly lessened the personal devotion that the nation had shown to the Tudors.

2. CHARLES I. 1625–1649

160. **Charles I and the "divine right."**—Charles was twenty-five years of age when he came to the throne. In

person and manner he was a marked contrast to his father, but he believed in the "divine right of kings," and in his own power and dignity even more firmly than did James. He was convinced that, if the people did not recognize his "divine right" to rule as he wished, it was simply because they were wilful and obstinate; it was his duty to govern and theirs to obey. Difficulty arose at the very beginning of his reign in connection with his marriage to Henrietta Maria of France. When the marriage was arranged, Charles had promised to allow his wife the utmost freedom in the exercise of her religion, and to permit her to bring to England her own priests and attendants. He also promised that the laws against the English Roman Catholics should be relaxed. Not only had Charles no power to carry out these promises, but he and his father had assured Parliament that he would not enter into any such agreement. When Parliament met, it insisted on enforcing the laws against the Roman Catholics, and Charles was compelled to yield. This incident irritated the English Protestants, and the failure of the king to keep his promise aroused the anger of France.

CHARLES I

161. **The first Parliament, 1626.**—Charles quickly called his first Parliament and asked for money to carry on the war against Spain. The House was composed largely of wealthy gentlemen and able lawyers, for the most part Puritans. They knew well the history of their country, and were resolved to maintain the power of Parliament. They claimed that Parliament had the sole right to tax the people, and

thus raise money for the government. If the king could manage to raise money by his own methods, he could get along without a Parliament and govern as he pleased. Parliament, moreover, could not meet unless the king summoned it. Charles had kept his worthless friend, Buckingham, as his chancellor, or chief minister. Buckingham was blamed by the Commons for all the misdeeds of the government, and they refused to grant money unless it should be spent by men in whom they had confidence. It had been the custom of the Parliament to grant a new king, for life, a customs duty called "tonnage and poundage," that is a tax per ton and per pound on imported merchandise. But as James had increased this duty without asking its consent, Parliament refused to grant it for more than one year at a time.

Under the advice of Buckingham, the king dismissed the Parliament, and, going ahead with the war, sent a fleet and army to attack Cadiz. The attack failed, however, and the English forces then tried to find the Spanish treasure fleet; but the fleet escaped them and reached Spain in safety. The expedition, thinned by disease, returned without accomplishing anything.

JOHN PYM

162. **The second Parliament, 1626.**—Money was needed, and therefore Charles had to summon Parliament again. Under the leadership of resolute men like Sir John Eliot and John Pym, the Commons began an enquiry into the conduct of the war. They held Buckingham responsible for the failure, and resolved to impeach him before the House of Lords. Charles refused to allow any enquiry by Parliament into the conduct of his minister, and, as the Commons persisted, he dissolved the House. No money had been granted.

163. **The third Parliament, 1628-29.**—As Charles could get no funds by lawful means, he decided to get them

in any way that he could; and he tried to collect what was really almost the same as benevolences, although the amount demanded was in some proportion to each man's income. Some of those who refused to pay these "forced loans" were imprisoned; others had soldiers billeted in their houses, and as offences committed by these soldiers were tried by martial law, the citizens had very little redress; poorer men who resented the tax were forced to serve in the army.

In the meantime, a war had broken out between France and England. An expedition, led by the Duke of Buckingham, to assist the French Protestants who were besieged in Rochelle, ended in a complete failure. Both France and Spain were now united against England, and Charles could not procure enough money to resist their attacks; there was nothing to do but to call another Parliament. The king was angry and scornful; Parliament was indignant at his treatment of his subjects, and alarmed at what might be the result if he were allowed to go on in his course. In the opinion of the Commons, voting money for war was not the most important matter on hand; affairs at home must first be attended to. They drew up and presented to the king the famous "Petition of Right." The Petition of Right asked that the king should keep the laws of the land; and the main points named were that no man should be compelled to make any loan to the king against his will, or to pay any tax not agreed to by Parliament; that soldiers and sailors should not be quartered upon the people without their consent; that no one should be tried by martial law in time of peace; and that no one should be put in prison without cause shown. Charles held out for a long time. When he did decide to agree to the petition, the members of Parliament were so delighted that they straightway voted the supplies that the king had asked. Then they began to discuss the matters that had been mentioned in the petition, and to plan how to get rid of Buckingham, upon whom they laid all the responsibility for the king's actions. But Charles, rather than endanger his favourite, interfered and closed the session. A short time afterwards, however, just as the duke was about to set out on another expedition against France, he was assassinated. The people rejoiced at the death of the man they hated, but his death caused no change in the policy of the king. The expedition, however, which sailed under a new commander, proved a complete failure.

The next year this Parliament met again. There was great excitement throughout the country, for, in spite of the Petition of Right, the king still continued to collect taxes not voted by Parliament. Another trouble had arisen, for William Laud, who at this time was bishop of London, had introduced into the church service many ceremonies that were so much like those of the Roman Catholics that Parliament feared a return to the ancient doctrine. The Speaker knew that a protest was coming, and he attempted to adjourn the House, saying that he did so by the king's orders. But even in defiance of the king, the House was resolved that the protest should be heard; and so, while two members held the Speaker down in his chair and another locked the outer door, a declaration was read that whoever should bring in any change in the creed and practices of the church and whoever should advise or should pay voluntarily any tax not voted by Parliament, was an enemy to his country.

COSTUMES, TIME OF CHARLES I

During the reading of the protest, the king had sent for one of the officers, but the man was not allowed to leave the room. The king sent a message, but the House refused to admit the messenger. Then the king "grew into much rage and passion" and sent the royal guard to break in the door; but now that the protest had been read and every member of the House had heard it, the doors were thrown open and Parliament quietly adjourned.

Immediately after the adjournment, the king arrested the members who had taken part in the proceedings attending the passage of the resolutions. Some of these made their peace with the king and were pardoned. Sir John Eliot was locked up in the Tower and kept there three years, until he died; two others were imprisoned for eleven years.

164. **Eleven years without a Parliament, 1629-40.**—Charles now devoted his whole attention to two things which he thought concerned most his dignity as an absolute sovereign: the raising of money without a Parliament, and the establishment of the doctrines and customs of the English church, including the use of the prayer book, throughout his dominions. Peace was concluded with France and Spain. He and his ministers used many methods for filling the royal treasury. One way was by granting "monopolies," an old abuse of the preceding century; from this one source the king obtained £200,000. The Star Chamber was made an instrument of the king's tyranny, and, for slight offences, people were compelled by it to pay enormous fines. One of the chief supporters of the king was Earl Strafford, who, as Sir Thomas Wentworth, had formerly been one of the most active leaders on the side of Parliament.

EARL STRAFFORD

He was sent to Ireland as Lord Deputy, and his vigorous measures there soon gave him absolute control of the country. The aim of his policy, which he called "Thorough," was to make the king supreme.

It would take too long to describe all the illegal devices for raising money, such as pulling down houses built without royal license and doubling the duty on imports, but the tax known as "ship-money" was of special importance. In early times ships had been furnished by the seaport towns to be used by the king in protecting their trade against pirates. About 1634 the pirates of Algiers began to attack English shipping, and the Dutch naval power was becoming dangerously strong; a larger navy was necessary. Charles first called on the seaports to furnish and equip a certain number of ships, or, if they preferred, to make a money payment, "ship-money," instead. But soon Charles, on the ground that the whole country was interested in protecting commerce, tried to make all the counties pay the tax.

At length a Buckinghamshire squire, John Hampden, refused to pay his share of ship-money, on the ground that it was a tax not voted by Parliament. The amount was only twenty shillings, but the principle at stake was of great importance. The case was tried before twelve judges, and, though Hampden lost his case, five of the judges were in his favour. Charles continued the tax, but the arguments against it went through the country and made the people less disposed to submit.

Archbishop Laud

Meanwhile, Laud, now Archbishop of Canterbury, was busy in making the Puritan churches use the prayer book and conduct service according to the Act of Uniformity. In 1604 the clergy of the established church had adopted a body of canons relating to the doctrine of the church and the conduct of public worship. Laud now undertook to enforce these rules. The Court of High Commission was made the instrument of his oppression. The Puritans were the greatest sufferers. Hundreds of their ministers were deprived of their livings. Some, who openly criticized the policy of the king, were sentenced to pay a heavy fine, to be imprisoned for life, and to lose their ears. So bitter was the persecution that thousands of them emigrated to America.

165. **Trouble in Scotland.**—Charles had put the country into a turmoil, but he had gained no wisdom from his troubles. Instead of trying to make matters better in England, he turned his attention to Scotland. He chose this time, of all times, to try to compel the Scottish Presbyterians to use the prayer book of the church of England. The Dean of Edinburgh did his best to obey the king's orders, but in a moment the church was full of angry shouts. When he tried again, an old woman named Janet Geddes threw at his head the little stool on which she had been sitting, and cried, "Do you mean to say mass at my ear?" Then came rebellion, and the king had no money to pay soldiers. He was forced to summon another Parliament. But when Parliament met in April, 1640, the Commons refused to give the king any help until their greivances were redressed. After a session of three weeks, the king angrily dissolved Parliament. But the Scots pressed on, and he found it impossible to resist them with such troops as he could raise. In November of the same year, therefore, he was again compelled to call Parliament. It is known as the "Long Parliament," as it was not dissolved for twenty years.

166. **The Long Parliament.**—Much as the people had suffered, they had not yet come to the point where they would accuse their king directly of unfaithfulness to the kingdom intrusted to him. Instead of this, Parliament accused his advisers, Laud and Strafford, of treason, and both were sent to the Tower. Charles wrote a friendly letter to Strafford and said, "Upon the word of a king, you shall not suffer in life, honour or fortune. This is but justice." Within three

weeks Strafford had a chance to learn the value of the word of the king, for Charles assented to his death, though most unwillingly, and he was beheaded. Laud was kept in prison until his execution four years later.

The general discontent of the kingdom and the danger from the Scottish army, forced the king to give assent to sweeping measures of reform that were introduced into Parliament. The Star Chamber Court was abolished and ship-money was declared illegal. It was also provided that Parliament must meet at least once in three years, whether the king called it or not, and that the present Parliament could not be dissolved by the king without its consent.

167. **The "Grand Remonstrance," 1641.**—Charles had unwillingly consented to all the measures of Parliament, but secretly he was trying to procure help in Scotland and Ireland in his struggle for the mastery. In order to make friends with the Scots, he went to Edinburgh in 1641, agreed to all the demands of the Scottish Parliament, and tried to persuade them to send him an army.

John Hampden

In the meantime, there was trouble in Ireland. The native Irish, who had been dispossessed of their land by James I, were almost in a state of rebellion. The rule of Strafford had made the Irish more discontented than ever. As soon as his strong hand was removed, a rebellion took place, and thousands of English were massacred in a few days. It was necessary to send an army to quell the revolt; but to give the king men and money was to endanger the liberties of England, for he would then be strong enough to compel the submission of those members of Parliament who were opposed to him.

There was much discussion. Some stood firmly by the king. Some thought that it was the wisest plan, since the king had yielded several points, to bear with him, and hope that nothing worse would come to pass. Some—and these were in the majority—felt that they had endured as long as they could, and that they could put no confidence in anything that he might promise. They drew up a document called the "Grand Remonstrance," which named, one after another, the acts of Charles that they considered were against the laws of the land.

Just at this point the king might have recovered his power. There was a party in Parliament that favoured him, while his opponents were divided into religious factions; his agreement to the demands of the Scottish Parliament had made him friends, and his assent to the measures of the Commons had won him support in London. He now took a step which destroyed his influence. The queen urged him to seize five members of Parliament who had been leaders in passing the Remonstrance. Her only idea of a king was that he should be absolute, as the king of France was. She advised him to go and "pull those rogues out by the ears."

The king went to the House with several hundred armed men. He left them at the door, advanced to the Speaker's desk, and inquired for Pym, Hampden, and three other members, whom he accused of treasonable correspondence with the Scots. The Speaker replied, "Sir, I have neither eyes to see, nor ears to hear, except as the House shall direct me." The five members, warned of their danger, had been safely concealed in the city, and the king was obliged to retire without them. He had forcibly and unlawfully invaded the rights of the House and had failed. The citizens were roused; an armed force was raised, and the five members were escorted back to Westminster.

168. **The Civil War breaks out.**—Affairs had now come to a point where neither party would yield any further, and there was nothing to do but to fight. Setting up his standard at Nottingham in 1642, the king called upon all loyal subjects to join him. Every man in the kingdom must stand on one side or the other. About one-third of the Commons and more than one-half of the Lords supported the king, while the remainder of the Lords and Commons, a large number of country gentlemen of high social

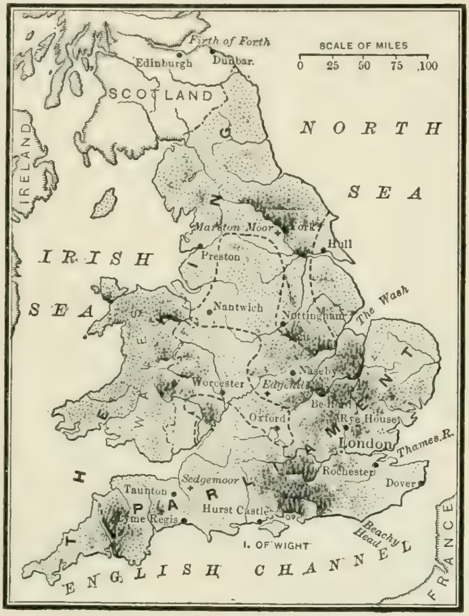
position, and the bulk of the Puritans supported the Parliament. "It is easier to draw a geographical line between parties, though both sides had representatives everywhere. For the most part, London, the southern and the south-eastern shires were in favour of Parliament; the north, Wales, and the south-western shires inclined towards the king." The royalists, because of their excellent horsemanship, were known as "Cavaliers," and the supporters of Parliament were nicknamed "Roundheads," from the close-cropped hair worn by the Puritans.

A CAVALIER

A ROUNDHEAD

169. **Progress of the war.**—It was in 1642 that the first fighting took place; the first real battle was at Edgehill in 1643. Neither army had had much training, but most of the king's men were accustomed to riding, and therefore the royal cavalry was far superior to the undrilled Puritan footsoldiers. The contest resulted in a drawn battle. Indeed, for some little time the king was successful, and had it not been for one strong, clear-headed man among the Puritans, Oliver Cromwell, the ending of the war might have been quite different.

Cromwell was a native of Huntingdonshire, a gentleman of large estate and good social position. He sat in Parliament for the first time in 1628, and from the first took a leading part in the discussions of the House. In religion, he belonged to the Independents, who wished to make each congregation a self-governing church, independent of all others. At the outbreak of the war, he raised a troop of horse, which did good service at Edgehill. After the battle, he said to Hampden, "We can never win with such men as you have; old tapsters and servants, low-born and mean-spirited fellows can never win against gentlemen who have honour, courage, and resolution." He saw at once that it was a mistake to pay low wages and to take every one who wished to become a soldier; and he set to work to raise a regiment among the Puritans that should be of quite different material from the rest of the parliamentary army. He gave his men high wages, but he would admit to his ranks only those who were of good character, some education, and strong religious convictions.



Battles of the Civil War

Before the war fairly broke out, Charles had asked Scotland to aid him, but that country had refused. Parliament now asked the Scots to unite with the English army against the king; and the Scots agreed on condition that the Presbyterian form of worship should be adopted in England. This did not please Cromwell, but finally, in 1643, a treaty was drawn up called the "Solemn League and Covenant," and an alliance was formed.

Cromwell and the Scots now met the royalist army under Prince Rupert, the nephew of the king, at Marston Moor in 1644. Cromwell's "Ironsides" charged on Rupert's cavalry; they crumbled them to pieces and scattered them, as Cromwell said, "like a little dust." But Cromwell did not pursue. Wheeling about, he promptly charged the royalist infantry, with a like result. The north of England was conquered. Elsewhere Charles was winning victories.

Cromwell, as a member of Parliament, now attacked the weak spot in the parliamentary army. He felt that the army was badly organized and that some of the commanders were really not anxious to destroy utterly the power of the king. A "Self-denying Ordinance" was introduced in 1645, which provided that members of Parliament should resign their offices in the army; the effect of this ordinance was to remove from their commands several of the chief leaders of the parliamentary army. Sir Thomas Fairfax was made general, and Cromwell, in spite of the ordinance, became lieutenant-general. Hampden had been killed a short time before in an obscure skirmish at Chalgrove Field. The organization of the army on a "New Model" was carried out under the direction of Cromwell.

In 1645, six months after its re-organization, the New Model Army faced the forces of the king at Naseby. Rupert commanded the right wing of the royalists, Cromwell the right wing of the parliamentarians. Both were victorious, but Cromwell, returning from the charge, attacked Rupert's horse in flank and routed them. The king was hopelessly defeated. The small armies that remained to him in different parts of the country were soon scattered, and the war was over.

And now came a time of tedious attempts to settle terms of peace. The king might still have made an honourable arrangement with the Parliament and saved his life and his throne, but he continued plotting, hoping that the rival parties in Parliament would destroy each other, or that the Scots would come to his assistance. At last he surrendered himself to the Scottish army, who gave him up to the English Parliament. The army then took charge of him, and offered to come to such terms with him as would have left him much of his royal power. He would not agree to these terms and escaped to the Isle of Wight, where he met commissioners from Scotland and induced them to renew the war. But the Scottish army was badly defeated by Cromwell at Preston in 1648. Charles was already in the power of the army, and was now safely confined in Hurst Castle, where no help could reach him.

The Presbyterian party in the Commons still desired to make peace with the king. But the army, entirely under the control of the Independents, had lost all patience with him, and determined to have a Parliament that would obey its will. One day Colonel Pride appeared in the House of Commons with a body of troopers sent by the Independents, and expelled more than a hundred of the members who were still anxious to come to an agreement with the king. The remaining members, about sixty in number, were prepared to carry out the will of the army.

170. **The execution of Charles.**—In 1649 this remnant of the Commons appointed a special commission to try the king for "high treason and other high crimes." Before this, kings had been deposed, or forced to flee to save their lives, or had even been murdered, but to call a reigning sovereign into court and order him to defend himself was something entirely new. The king answered simply that he had nothing to say, since the court before which he was to be tried had no lawful authority. He was condemned, and ten days later he was executed. He met his death with calm dignity, and, doubtless with sincerity, maintained the justice of his cause.

SUMMARY

From the beginning of his reign, Charles was in conflict with his Parliament, which refused to grant supplies unless he would govern as it desired. In his endeavour to rule without a Parliament, he collected "ship-money" and other illegal taxes, revived "monopolies" and enforced his will by means of the Star Chamber. He signed the "Petition of Right," but did not abide by its terms. For eleven years he ruled without a Parliament, Laud and Strafford being his chief ministers. An attempt to force the prayer book upon the Scots set Scotland in a ferment, and to obtain funds to suppress the rebellion the "Long Parliament" was summoned. Revolt against injustice and oppression produced uprisings and massacres in Ireland. The "Grand Remonstrance" was drawn up. Charles attempted to arrest members of Parliament for their free speech in the House. Civil war followed. Under Cromwell's leadership the Roundheads were successful. Charles surrendered to the Scots, and was given by them into the hands of Parliament. Cromwell and his Independents captured the king. "Pride's Purge" expelled the Presbyterians from the House, and the Independents who remained appointed a commission to try the king. He was condemned and executed.

3. THE COMMONWEALTH. 1649–1660

171. **The establishment of the Commonwealth.**—After the death of the king, the small number of members who remained in Parliament abolished the monarchy and the House of Lords, and declared England a Commonwealth. In this action they were supported by the army, but not by the majority of the people. Forty-one men were selected by the House as a Council of State, to carry on the government. John Bradshaw was chosen president, and the Latin secretary was John Milton, the Puritan poet, the author of "Paradise Lost."

JOHN MILTON

Now arose strife among many different parties, each seeking to control public affairs. There were Presbyterians and Independents, and there were "Levellers," who wished to have no titles and no differences of rank or political power. There were many also who had been royalists and had stood by the king from the beginning, and there were others who had not approved of Charles, but now wished his son to be king. The only body strong enough to act was the army; so, for the next eleven years, the army and its leader were in practical control.

172. **Prince Charles seeks the throne.**—Over in Holland was King Charles's oldest son, who was also named Charles. He was a young man of nineteen, and was the hope of the royalists. Little could be done for him in England, since Cromwell and the invincible army were there, but in Scotland and Ireland there was a better chance, and the royalists of both countries had proclaimed him as their king.

The first uprising took place in Ireland, and Cromwell was at once sent to reduce the country. In nine months his work was done. Wherever either royalism or love for the Roman Catholic church had found a stronghold, whether among English or Irish, there was devastation and remorseless massacre of those who resisted his power. The garrisons of Drogheda and Wexford were put to the sword. Cromwell drove many of the native land-holders in Ireland to the north-west, and gave their land to English settlers.

Charles had now no chance in Ireland. His only hope was in Scotland, and there he went in 1650. He agreed to become a Presbyterian, and to set up that religion in England and Ireland as well. Cromwell then invaded Scotland, and, at Dunbar, the army of the royalists was entirely defeated, and soon all southern Scotland was in Cromwell's power. Accompanied by Charles, the Scots now crossed the border into England, on the expectation that the English royalists would crowd their ranks. They were much disappointed, for few came to join them. Then followed, in 1651, the battle of Worcester, in which nearly all the Scottish army was cut down. Cromwell called this battle his "crowning mercy." He never had occasion to draw his sword again.

After the battle of Worcester, Charles rode away alone, and after many narrow escapes reached France. Long after, a tree called the "royal oak" was pointed out where the prince had concealed himself among the branches while his pursuers searched the woods for him in vain.

173. **The war with Holland and Spain.**—During the civil war in England, the Dutch had devoted themselves steadily to trade, and their merchant vessels were larger and swifter than those of England. Most of the goods imported into England at this time were brought in Dutch vessels. It was determined to stop this, and, in 1651, a Navigation Act was passed which ordered that all goods landed in the ports of England must be brought in English ships, or in the ships of the country from which the goods came. The English also demanded that all ships sailing the Channel should salute the English flag. This, together with the irritation caused by the Navigation Act, led to a war with the Dutch.

Robert Blake, a distinguished soldier of the parliamentary army, was made "general of the sea," and took command of the fleet. Several naval battles were fought with unequal success. In the third engagement, with forty ships Blake had to face Van Tromp, the Dutch admiral, with more than eighty vessels, and was defeated. The Dutch then sailed the Channel with brooms at the masthead to signify that they had swept the English from the seas. But a little later, when the two fleets met on more equal terms near Portland, the English won a signal victory. The Dutch were glad to make peace with England.

Blake then destroyed the Turkish pirates in the Mediterranean and set free many Englishmen who had been held as slaves. As in Elizabeth's time, English seamen again challenged the power of Spain at sea. Blake's most daring exploit was in capturing, with the loss of a single ship, a Spanish treasure-fleet in the strongly fortified harbour of Santa Cruz in the Canary Islands. He died at sea in 1657, just as he was entering Plymouth harbour, and was buried with the highest honours in Westminster Abbey. As a result of the war with Spain, Jamaica and the Flemish town of Dunkirk fell into the hands of the English.

174. **Cromwell dissolves Parliament, 1653.**—Four years had passed since the execution of Charles I, and still the remnant of the Long Parliament was making laws for the nation. Cromwell believed that Parliament should represent the country more generally, but those who were already members wished to be free to retain their seats as long as they chose, and when vacancies did occur, to fill them only with such men as they were willing to receive. Word was brought to Cromwell that a law to this effect was to be passed, and he went to the House with a file of musketeers. He sat and listened awhile, then made a fiery speech, ending by saying, "Call them in; call them in. We have had enough of this. I will put an end to your prating." The soldiers marched in and cleared the House. Cromwell locked the door, and put the key in his pocket. Few men felt any sorrow for the fate of the Long Parliament. Cromwell himself said, "We did not hear a dog bark at their going."

175. **Cromwell as Lord Protector.**—Cromwell and his officers now selected a Parliament themselves. Only men who were known to be religious and honourable were allowed to sit in it. As the Parliament consisted of only one hundred men, it was called the Little Parliament; but the royalists nicknamed it Barebone's Parliament, from the curious name of a London leather merchant, Praise-God Bārbōn, who was a member. After much discussion without result, most of the members withdrew. The officers of the army then met and devised a scheme of government. Cromwell was to be Lord Protector and was to be aided by a permanent Council of twenty-one men and a Parliament to be called every three years. Cromwell accepted the office and took up his residence at once in the palace of the late king.

Oliver Cromwell

After this Cromwell made one or two attempts to rule by Parliament, and even to revive the House of Lords, but his efforts ended in failure. In fact he was as ready to quarrel with Parliaments as Charles I had been. He really ruled by the army, and, in 1655, divided the country into ten military districts, over each of which he placed a major-general, who was to keep order and enforce the law; but, nearly two years later, in deference to the wishes of his second Parliament, he withdrew them, and allowed things to go on in the usual way. He would not tolerate disorder, and some who stirred up rebellion against him soon found their way to the scaffold. Never, however, had the laws been more strictly or justly administered. On the very day that the Commonwealth concluded an alliance with Portugal, the brother of the Portuguese ambassador was hanged in London for murder. Under his rule, also, the Jews, who had been banished by Edward I, were allowed to return to England.

Cromwell made the name of England respected abroad. England was again a great power, and acted as the protector of the weak and the oppressed throughout Europe. He himself said in his speech to his first Parliament, "I dare say there is not a nation in Europe but is willing to ask a good understanding with you."

176. **Dissatisfaction with Puritan rule.**—It was a good government, but it was arbitrary, and the people of England were not satisfied to have power so absolute in the hands of any one man. Then, too, there were very strict laws forbidding many things that a great part of the nation looked upon as harmless. The Puritans called it wicked to play chess, to dance around a May-pole, to go fox-hunting, or to eat mince-pie at Christmas. As for the theatres, they had all been closed in 1642; for the Puritans made no difference between the noble plays of Shakespeare and the vulgar ones in which King James delighted, so all were condemned together.

177. **The close of the Protectorate.**—It was only by unremitting personal effort that a government such as that of Cromwell could be carried on, and in time his strength began to fail. At last it was evident that the Protector's hour had come. When hardly conscious he was asked to name his successor, and is thought to have whispered "Richard." He died on September 3rd, 1658, the anniversary of the battles of Dunbar and Worcester, a day which he had always considered specially fortunate. He was buried in Westminster Abbey, and Richard Cromwell became Protector in his father's stead.

It would have taken a firm hand to rule in Cromwell's place. Richard was a Puritan, but he had no sympathy with the extreme members of his party, and he was not strong enough to suppress them as his father had done. He was kindly and good-hearted, but he could not govern a nation. There was only one power in the land, and that was the army. It was made up in great degree of Independents, and they wished matters to remain as they were; but the Presbyterians and the Cavaliers thought that anything was better than to let the army have control.

At last the officers of the army decided to call back the remnant of the Long Parliament. Richard quietly withdrew from power. The army soon ceased to be united, and when General Monk came with his men from Scotland, every one looked to him to take charge of affairs. He was a quiet, silent man, but when he had once made up his mind, he did not change. The Common Council of London told him that the people would pay no more taxes that were decreed by a limited Parliament like the one then in session. Still Monk hesitated. At last he came to a decision, and he wrote a bold, firm letter to that body, bidding them issue calls for a "free" Parliament, that is, for a Parliament elected by the nation, and not by the Puritans alone. This assembly invited Charles to return as king of England.

SUMMARY

The period began with a small House of Commons making laws for the nation, and with the chief power in the hands of Cromwell, supported by the army. Prince Charles, seeking first the aid of Ireland and then that of Scotland, attempted in vain to recover his father's throne. Finally, Cromwell dissolved Parliament by force, and the land was ruled by a Council that soon made him Lord Protector. His methods of ruling were often arbitrary, but he did what he really believed was for the good of the land. He restored the naval glory of England. His rule was good, and England prospered; but the reaction against Puritan narrowness set in, and not long after Cromwell's death, his son and successor was forced to resign the position of Protector, and calls were issued for a "free" Parliament.

4. CHARLES II. 1660–1685

178. **The Restoration.**—The Restoration is the name usually given to that period when the third Stuart king began to reign, although the royalists claimed that Charles had been reigning for eleven years, but had been kept out of his kingdom by that "base mechanic fellow," Cromwell. But the Restoration meant more than the coming back of the king. It meant the coming back of the Parliament, for we must remember that the people had

not been fairly represented in Cromwell's time. It meant also the coming back of the old church, with its bishops and prayer book, and the coming back of the old amusements and social life. The theatres were again opened; the village holidays were again celebrated with the old bear-baiting, horse racing, cock-fighting, dancing and buffoonery.

Charles II

179. **Treatment of the regicides.**—The first business of the new Parliament was to deal with those who had been rebels against the crown. An Act was passed granting a general pardon, but from this those who had been concerned in the execution of Charles I were exempted. Thirteen of these "regicides" were executed, nineteen imprisoned for life, while nineteen fled to the continent. The dead body of Cromwell was taken from the grave and hanged. Even the body of the heroic Blake was taken from its tomb in Westminster Abbey. The king held that all who fought on the side of Cromwell were guilty of high treason, and deserved death, and he urged the Parliament to these acts of venegeance. To protect the lives of future sovereigns, Parliament compelled all officials to take a solemn oath declaring their belief that it was not lawful for a subject, under any circumstances, to take up arms against a king.

In the general rejoicing over the restoration of the monarchy, Parliament was ready to grant almost anything to the king. It voted him at the beginning of his reign for life the sum of £1,200,000 annually. This revenue made Charles really independent of Parliament. He had far more ready money than any previous sovereign.

180. **Charles's character.**—It is a great pity that Charles was not worthy of all the adoration showered upon him by the people, but he cared for nothing except his own amuse-

ment. If he had wished for innocent enjoyments, that would have been a different matter, but he was shameless and immoral in his pleasures. He surrounded himself with the most profligate companions. Any one looking on would have thought that the whole court gloried in being as wicked as possible.

At first the nation sympathized with the king's merriment. The years had been so grave and gloomy that it was certainly a relief to have a king who was good-humoured and witty· but people soon began to realize that more than wit and agreeable manners are needed in the man who stands at the head of a nation; and more than one remembered that Cromwell and his Parliament, even if they had been strict and serious, had not given their time to selfish pleasures, and had conscientiously tried to do what they believed was for the good of the country.

181. **Persecution of the dissenters.**—The first Parliament elected in Charles's reign set to work at once to restore the Anglican church and to drive out the Puritans and other dissenters. An Act of Uniformity was passed in 1662 requiring all clergymen to use the prayer book; about two thousand refused, and were compelled to give up their churches. All those who refused to attend the service of the English church were arrested, fined and imprisoned; as many as ten thousand were in prison at one time. An attempt was made in 1665 to break up the dissenting congregations by the "Five-Mile Act," which forbade their clergy to preach or teach within five miles of any town or city.

John Bunyan of Bedfordshire was one of the dissenting preachers imprisoned under these laws. Driven by a feeling of sin in his youth, he was converted to the Puritan faith, and became a travelling preacher. For refusing to abstain from preaching, he was put in Bedford jail, where he remained twelve years. While there he wrote several books, the most remarkable of which is "The Pilgrim's Progress," a famous allegory of a pilgrimage from this world to the next.

In Scotland, the Presbyterians were called Covenanters, because they had signed a "Solemn League and Covenant" to maintain their religion. The Scottish Parliament established the same form of worship as was used in England, but the Presbyterians refused to attend the church services, just as the dissenters did in England. And now began a cruel religious persecution in Scotland. The Covenanters held meetings in private houses or in fields. These meetings were forbidden and were broken up by armed soldiers. In spite of persecution, the Covenanters still met in caves and other secret places, and resisted, even by force of arms, the attempt to make them abandon their religion.

One important result of these religious persecutions was the foundation of the colony of Pennsylvania. The government owed William Penn, leader of a body of dissenters known as the Society of Friends, or Quakers, a large sum of money, and Penn asked for a grant of a tract of land in America in payment of the debt. Charles granted the request very willingly, and from that time the Quakers had a refuge in the New World when life in England became unbearable.

182. **The Great Plague and the Great Fire.**—In 1665 there came a hot, dry spring, and then the Great Plague, which swept over England as the Black Death had done three hundred years before. Whenever any one was taken with it, the words, "Lord, have mercy upon us," were written with red chalk on his door. Every one who could leave hurried to the country. The stores were closed. The streets were silent as the tomb, except for the passing of the dead-cart and the awful cry, "Bring out your dead, bring out your dead!" After six months had passed, the pestilence began to die out, and a little later people ventured to return from the country. Great fires had been kept burning in the streets to purify the air, but the houses were old and dirty, and it seemed as if nothing but their destruction would conquer the disease.

The next year came the Great Fire, "a most horrid, malicious, bloody flame," says Mr. Pepys in his journal. For three days it swept the city of London; houses, stores, and churches were in ashes, and nearly two-thirds of the city were destroyed. Not many lives were lost, but the poor people suffered terribly, for almost everything that they possessed was swept away. Charles and his brother James were both very kind to the sufferers, and did all that they could to help them. The famous architect, Sir Christopher Wren, had a plan for rebuilding the city so that there would be no more narrow, winding streets, but the owners of property would not agree to any great changes, and the city was rebuilt on almost the same foundations, though much brick and stone was used instead of wood. Some good at least was done by the fire in destroying so many of the plague-infested houses.

183. **The war with Holland.**—While London was suffering from these disasters, the English navy was engaged in a stubborn contest with the Dutch fleet. The war was caused by the re-enactment of the Navigation Act, and by the rivalry of the two nations in the Indian trade. The war went on in India, along the coast of Africa, and in America, where an English fleet seized the Dutch colony of New Amsterdam, thereupon renamed New York, in honour of the Duke of York, the king's brother. A series of bloody battles took place off the eastern coast of England. The enormous amount of £2,500,000 had been voted by Parliament to carry on the war. But this money, which should have been spent in keeping the navy in repair and in supplying men and guns, was squandered by the king on his friends and favourites. The result was that in 1667 the Dutch sailed up the Thames and blockaded

Costumes, Time of Charles II

London for several days, and the English fleet was not prepared to meet them. The people were stung by this national disgrace, and this, together with the growing mistrust of France, compelled the king to agree, in 1667, to a peace. In the following year England entered into a Triple Alliance with Holland and Sweden against the French king.

184. **The Cabal ministry.** Partly by reason of the unsuccessful issue of the Dutch war, Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, who had been the king's first minister ever since the Restoration, was forced to resign his office and flee the country. Charles himself was glad to be relieved of an adviser whose nature was too serious to suit his own frivolous disposition, and he felt that now he would be more free of the control of Parliament. The king's nominal advisers had hitherto been the Privy Council. This was too unwieldy a body to consult, and therefore the king chose from their numbers a select group of members, who thus became a kind of inner Council. By mere chance the first letters of the names of those five whom Charles now selected to be his advisers formed the word CABAL, a word which meant a body of secret advisers; but so distrusted were these men that the "cabal" has ever since been used as a term of reproach.

185. **Charles and Louis.**—Although Charles had entered into the Triple Alliance, he was determined to break his promise. He was eager for money, and this he could not get without calling a Parliament and presenting good reason to show that money was needed. He was already beginning to lean towards the Roman Catholic religion and to favour the Roman Catholics of England. In 1670, unknown to the Protestant members of the Cabal, a secret treaty was made at Dover with Louis XIV, king of France, by which Charles, in spite of his alliance with the Dutch, bound himself to assist Louis to conquer that nation; he also agreed to join the Roman Catholic church openly and to restore that religion in England. In return he was to receive a large yearly pension from Louis and the aid of six thousand French soldiers to be used against the English, should they object to carrying out the terms of the treaty.

Charles actually declared war against the Dutch, but as he did not dare to appeal to Parliament for money to carry on the war, he seized from the national treasury what would be equal to nine or ten million dollars to-day, and spent it partly on the war and partly on his own pleasure. This money had been collected to repay wealthy citizens of London who had lent large sums to the government, and when they were not paid, many merchants and bankers were ruined. The alliance with France was very unpopular, and, moreover, it was strongly suspected that Charles was leaning towards Roman Catholicism. The country was indignant, and, much against his will, the king was compelled again to make peace with the Dutch.

186. **Trouble over religion.**—Charles had already attempted to carry out part of his agreement with Louis by proclaiming the Declaration of Indulgence, by which all laws interfering with any peaceable form of public worship were suspended. But Parliament began now to suspect the treacherous designs of the king, and declared that the Declaration was illegal, and that the laws could not be suspended except by Act of Parliament. When Charles saw that further resistance would be useless, he yielded. But Parliament went even further and passed, in 1673, the Test Act. This Act required every man appointed to an office in the army, navy or the government, to be a member of the church of England and to declare that he did not believe that the bread and wine of the sacrament became the actual body and blood of Christ when blessed by the priest. If he so declared, it was considered proof that he was not a Roman Catholic. The Duke of York, the brother of the king, immediately resigned his command in the navy, and his example was followed by hundreds of others who refused to sacrifice their religion.

The attempts of the king to lessen the severity of the laws against the Roman Catholics caused, in 1678, an outbreak of religious fanaticism. An infamous or half-insane wretch, called Titus Oates, declared that there had been a gigantic plot formed by the Roman Catholics to burn

London and to murder the king. This was wholly false, but many people were put to death as a result.

187. **The succession to the throne.**—The religious question made it very difficult for Parliament to decide who should reign after Charles. His next heir was his brother James, but James was a Roman Catholic, and the country wished to have a Protestant. Parliament, led by Shaftesbury, one of the ablest of the statesmen of this time, tried to pass a bill called the Exclusion Bill, that would exclude James from the throne; but it failed, partly because the king did everything that he could against it, and partly because people could not unite upon a successor to Charles. Some wished to give the crown to the Duke of Monmouth, an illegitimate son of Charles, and some wished to give it to one of James's two daughters. They were both Protestants, and Mary, the elder, had married William, Prince of Orange. Some thought that the only safe way was to exclude James and his children. When it was found to be impossible to carry the bill through Parliament, a number of its extreme advocates, in 1683, formed a plot to murder both Charles and the Duke of York. The conspiracy, known as the Rye House plot, was discovered, and several of those concerned in it were executed.

188. **The "Habeas Corpus Act," 1679.**—In the midst of all these quarrels the famous "Habeas Corpus Act" was passed by Parliament. The Act gets its name from the first two words of the writ, or written order, issued by a judge, which directs the sheriff to have the accused person produced in court, in order that the judge may be satisfied that the prisoner is detained in jail for just cause; the words mean, "have the body." This had long been a leading principle of English law, but on many occasions it had, by various means, been disregarded. Both Mary of Scotland and Sir Walter Raleigh had spent long years in prison without any trial or legal sentence. By the Act of 1679, however, any man confined in jail can demand to be brought at once before a judge, and if no reasonable cause is shown why he should be kept in jail, he can demand his release. Under this Act it is no longer

possible to imprison a man without just cause, or to keep him in jail for any length of time without a trial.

189. **Whig and Tory.**—In was during the excitement over the Exclusion Bill that the words Whig and Tory first came into general use. The friends of the Duke of York were naturally opponents of the bill. Some one noted that the duke favoured Irishmen, and immediately all who opposed the measure were called *Tories*, which originally signified an Irish robber or "bog-trotter," that is, a man who lived an outcast life among the bogs. A little later the friends of the bill were called *Whigs*, which was a nickname first given to Scottish rebels. Within a very few years these nicknames were accepted by the people to whom they were given, and a little later they became the names of the two great parties into which England was divided.

190. **The death of the king.**—Charles was now only fifty-five years of age, but he was old before his time, worn out with dissipation. He died in 1685. Even at the point of death, however, his ready wit and cheerfulness did not desert him, and to those who were with him he apologized for being so long in dying.

SUMMARY

On the return of Charles II the regicide judges were punished. Parliament was devoted to an extravagant, ungrateful, and dissolute king, who cared for little but his own disgraceful amusements. Gradually two parties were formed in the kingdom, one determined to maintain the hereditary succession to the throne, a course that would increase the power of the sovereign; the other determined to secure for the future a Protestant ruler. The reign was marked by the Great Plague, which was followed by the Great Fire of London. Wars, which brought disgrace upon England, were fought with the Dutch, and the shameful treaty of Dover was concluded with France. Puritans and Quakers were persecuted. The harassing of the Puritans brought forth "The Pilgrim's Progress," written by John Bunyan. The Habeas Corpus Act was passed.

5. JAMES II. 1685-1688

191. **The accession of James II.**—When the Duke of York succeeded to the throne as James II, the nation on the whole

was strongly disposed in his favour. He promised "to preserve this government both in church and state as it is now established," and in this promise the people had faith. It was commonly said, "We have now the word of a king, and a word never yet broken."

192. **The Argyle and Monmouth rebellions.**—During the last years of Charles II, many of the extreme Whigs had fled from England and taken refuge in Holland. Disappointed at the peaceful accession of James, they began to plot rebellion. Among these exiles was the Earl of Argyle, the leader of the clan of the Campbells, who had upheld the Covenant. He now went to Scotland with a small army, hoping that the Scots would rise in rebellion against the government. He then intended to join the Duke of Monmouth, who had planned an invasion of England, and to assist him in dethroning James. But the Scots did not rise; Argyle was captured and executed. So ruthless did the persecution of the Covenanters now become, that, in the south of Scotland, these years were afterwards known as the "killing time."

JAMES II

In the meantime, Monmouth had landed at Lyme Regis on the Dorsetshire coast, and was soon joined by five or six thousand of the country people. He boldly claimed the title of king; but the nobility and gentlemen kept away from him. At Sedgemoor he attacked the royal army and was badly defeated. Many of his followers were caught and hanged at once, and he himself was taken prisoner. Brought into the presence of James, he pleaded hard for mercy, but in vain; he was ordered to the block.

The execution of the leader of the rebellion was no more than could have been expected; but on the country people who had supported him, a pitiless revenge was taken by Colonel Kirke and his ferocious soldiers, "Kirke's Lambs."

Much worse than even this was the tour of the chief-justice of England, George Jeffreys, who went about through the rebellious districts holding a court which became known as the "Bloody Assizes." The trials of the victims were the merest mockery. "More than three hundred were put to death, and more than eight hundred were sold to slavery in the West Indian plantations." When Jeffreys returned to London, he was raised to the office of lord chancellor.

LORD JEFFREYS

193. **Arbitrary rule of James.**—The aim of James, during the first part of his reign, was to restore to the Roman Catholics the free exercise of their religion, and to employ them in the government and in the army, without in any way relaxing the laws against the Protestant dissenters. Taking advantage of the rebellion under Monmouth, he had largely increased the standing army, and had granted, contrary to the Test Act, commissions to many Roman Catholics. When Parliament met, he demanded that money should be granted for the support of the increased army, and that the Test Act should be repealed. Parliament, however, alarmed at the open violation of the law by the king, resolutely refused to agree to a repeal of the Test Act, and granted only a portion of the sum demanded for the payment of the troops. As there was no possibility of coming to an agreement, James prorogued the Parliament, and later dissolved it.

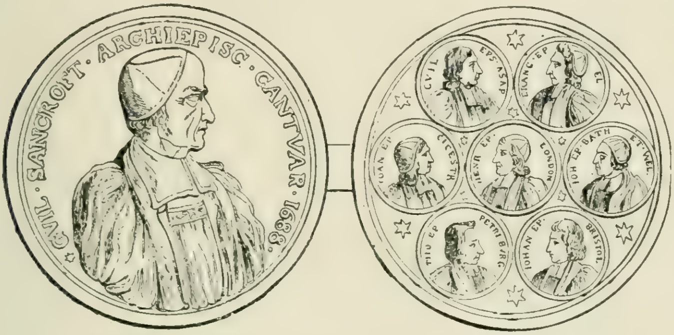
Now that the king had failed to secure the repeal of the Test Act, he was obliged to fall back on the royal prerogative. He claimed for himself, as king of England, the right to dispense with the laws in any case in which he should wish to do so. In order to make certain of the legality of this "dispensing power," he had a test case brought before the courts, taking care, however, first, to remove from the bench several judges who would not agree to support him.

With one exception, the judges decided that the king had the power claimed. The effect of this decision was at once evident. Roman Catholics were appointed to offices in the army, in the government, and even in the church. Protestants were removed from office and their places taken by Roman Catholics. The worship of the Roman Catholic church was openly celebrated in London. In order to control the clergy of the established church, the Court of High Commission was revived and Jeffreys placed at its head. The opening of Roman Catholic chapels had so enraged the people of London that riots were frequent; to overawe the populace James established a camp of sixteen thousand soldiers on Hounslow Heath near the city.

In spite of the outward improvement in their condition, many thoughtful Roman Catholics were beginning to grow uneasy. They felt that the king, by his arbitrary actions, had conferred no real benefit upon them, but had rather left them open to increased disabilities, should a Protestant king or queen succeed to the throne. Even the king himself felt the danger of his position, and, as he could expect little support from the established church, he resolved to make an appeal for the aid of the Protestant dissenters. Accordingly, in April, 1687, he issued a Declaration of Indulgence, which allowed freedom of worship to all, Roman Catholics and Protestant dissenters alike, and abolished all religious tests as a qualification for holding office. Many of the dissenters were much pleased at the action of the king, and declared loudly in his favour; but the greater number suspected his real design, and, moreover, they saw clearly that if the king could do away with one law, he could dispense with all the laws, and thus become supreme in the state.

James now made an attack on the liberties of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and still further antagonized the established church. The vice-chancellor of Cambridge was deprived of his office; a Roman Catholic was appointed to the headship of Magdalen College, Oxford; the members of Oxford University who refused to submit to the mandates of the king were dismissed. It was feared that both universities would soon be entirely under the control of the Roman Catholics.

To his great disappointment, James had found that the Protestant dissenters were not giving him the support that he expected. In the hope of gaining over those who still held out, he issued in April, 1688, a second Declaration of Indulgence. In this he renewed the grant of freedom of worship, and further promised to call a Parliament not later than November, at the same time urging that men who were favourable to religious freedom should be returned as members. The Declaration was ordered to be read in all churches on two successive Sundays.



Medal Struck in Honour of the Bishops

Before the appointed Sunday on which the Declaration was to be read for the first time, six bishops presented privately to the king a petition, signed by themselves and by Sancroft, Archbishop of Canterbury, asking that the order be withdrawn. In the petition, they set forth their loyalty to the crown and their desire for religious toleration, but held that, as Parliament had frequently declared that the king had no power to dispense with the laws, the Declaration was illegal, and that, as such, they could not conscientiously assist in its publication. The king was furiously angry. "God has given me the dispensing power," he said, "and I will maintain it." The bishops could not prevail on him to withdraw the order, and they retired. The

Declaration, however, was read in very few of the churches throughout the kingdom. In the three or four London churches in which the clergymen attempted to read it, the congregations left the churches in a body. The spirit of the nation was aroused; dissenters joined with Anglicans in their opposition to the illegal acts of the king.

James was alarmed at the storm he had raised, but he would not recede. The seven bishops were sent to the Tower, and a charge of seditious libel laid against them. Never was there such an uprising of popular sympathy. When the bishops left their boat to enter the Tower, the crowd that thronged the shore fell on their knees and begged for a blessing. One of the bishops, Trelawney, was from Cornwall, and the stout-hearted Cornishmen began to sing:—

"And shall Trelawney die?
And shall Trelawney die?
There's twenty thousand Cornishmen
Will know the reason why."

The trial, which was delayed for some weeks, ended in the triumphant acquittal of the bishops. When the verdict was announced, London went wild with delight; the streets were all aglow with bonfires, and the houses shone with illuminations; even the soldiers in the camp on Hounslow Heath joined in the general acclamations. The humiliation of the king was complete; the dispensing power had received a fatal blow.

194. **The question of the succession.**—James's two daughters were Protestants, and it is possible that the nation would have borne with the king much longer had it not been that while the bishops were in the Tower a son was born to him. This altered matters, as the boy would be brought up as a Roman Catholic, and there would be only a continuation of the struggle of the last three years—for all these troubles had come to pass within that short time. The only way out of the difficulty was to appeal to William, Prince of Orange, who had married James's eldest daughter, Mary, and who was himself, after the children of the king, the heir to the throne. Ten days after the birth of the Prince

of Wales, a letter, signed by a number of the leading men in the kingdom, was sent to William urging him to come to England and by force of arms to restore liberty to the country. William accepted the invitation, and a short time afterwards landed in England with an army of thirteen thousand men.

195. **The "Revolution of 1688."**—When it was known that William had reached England, the nobles and clergy flocked to his standard. The very men who had urged James on his course now deserted him; even the Princess Anne abandoned her father and fled to the protection of William. When James saw that he could not depend upon his closest friends and when the army refused to follow him, he gave up all thought of armed resistance. He made concession after concession, but it was too late. Deserted by all, he finally escaped to France late in December, 1688, no attempt being made to prevent him, and there he was royally received by King Louis.

William, in the meantime, had, without any delay, marched on London, and had taken possession of the city. A few riots and some destruction of property took place, but the "Revolution of 1688" is perhaps the only great revolution in which no blood was shed. Jeffreys, the lord chancellor, was badly frightened, for he was without his royal protector and in the midst of thousands of people who hated him most bitterly. He disguised himself and tried to escape, but he was captured and imprisoned in the Tower, where he remained until he died.

196. **The convention of 1689.**—The moment James fled from England the country was without any ordered government. There was no one who was legally authorized to call a Parliament, but the House of Lords and the leading men in the country requested William to carry on the government for the time, and in his own name to invite the electors to send representatives to a convention to be held at London. This convention, which met in January, 1689, declared that, as the king had violated the constitution, and had broken the original contract between king and people, they were no longer bound to obey him, and that,

as he had fled from the country, the throne was vacant. A Declaration of Rights was then drawn up, which traced the whole history of the contest with the king, stated clearly the rights and liberties of the people, and closed by declaring William and Mary king and queen of England, the actual government to be carried on by the king. William at once accepted the crown, both for himself and for his wife, and promised to rule according to the laws of England.

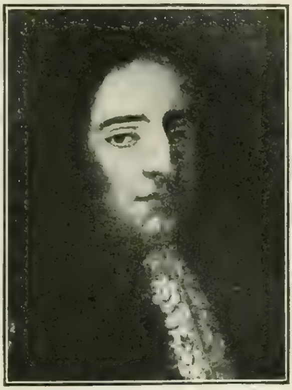
SUMMARY

James succeeded to the throne without opposition. Rebellions, under Argyle in Scotland and Monmouth in England, were sternly suppressed. James, in spite of the opposition of Parliament, did all in his power to restore the Roman Catholic church in England. He declared that both Roman Catholics and Protestants should have religious freedom, and required all clergymen to read in their churches a proclamation to this effect, contrary as it was to the laws of the land. Seven bishops petitioned against this ordinance and were sent to the Tower, but were acquitted. The birth of a prince, who would be brought up as a Roman Catholic, aroused the people to invite William, Prince of Orange, to come to their assistance. James fled to France. A convention, which met in 1689, at the call of William, declared the throne vacant and elected William and Mary king and queen of England.

6. William III and Mary II. 1689–1702

197. **Limitations of the royal power.**—In the autumn of 1689 Parliament passed an Act called the Bill of Rights, confirming the Declaration of Rights issued by the convention which had met ten months before. The bill provided that, without the consent of Parliament, the king should not set aside the laws or maintain a standing army; that the election of members of Parliament should be free from interference, and the Parliament should be frequently assembled; that William and Mary should reign as joint sovereigns, with the practical care of the government in the hands of William; that if either William or Mary died the other should continue to reign; that if they left no children, the crown should descend to Anne, the sister of

Mary and her heirs; and that no Roman Catholic or person marrying a Roman Catholic should be eligible for the crown of England.



William III

The Bill of Rights is the third great document that goes to make up the English constitution. Magna Charta, the Petition of Right, and the Bill of Rights form what Lord Chatham called the "Bible of the English Constitution," and, according to these three charters, Great Britain is now governed.

The power of Parliament was also increased at this time by two important changes. In the first place the Mutiny Act, passed early in the reign, gave the king power to enforce discipline in the army by martial law, but for only one year at a time. This Act, under various names, has been renewed from year to year ever since; if it were not renewed, a soldier could desert or disobey his officers without being subject to military discipline. In the second place, Parliament a little later adopted the plan of voting the king a revenue for only one year at a time. This, with the Mutiny Act, has compelled the king to call Parliament together annually, and so enabled it to keep a close oversight of the government, and of the condition of the country.

198. **Increase of liberty.**—The king's power was decreasing and the people's power was increasing. Perhaps no one thing was more favourable to the strength of the people than the freedom that was now given to print more nearly what any one chose. Before this time no one had been allowed to print anything without the permission of the government inspector; and even under William, if an editor printed any of the speeches made in Parliament, he ran some danger of being fined or imprisoned; but even this partial freedom was a long step in the right direction.

An important question was how much liberty to allow to the various churches. In 1689 a Toleration Act was passed which granted freedom of worship to nearly all except Roman Catholics; against them the penal laws were not relaxed. William himself was in favour of the utmost religious toleration. He had come from a land where people were free to believe as they would. When he was proclaimed king of Scotland, the usual oath was presented to him, that he would be "careful to root out all heretics and enemies to the true worship of God." As he repeated it, he said gravely, "I do not mean by these words that I am under any obligation to be a persecutor." Throughout his reign his influence was exercised always on the side of toleration.

199. **The beginning of party government.**—Since the days of the Cabal, whoever ruled England had been accustomed to select a little group of special advisers who had received the name of Cabinet, because they met in a small room instead of in the large council chamber. These ministers were servants of the crown, and held their office at the pleasure of the king. They frequently did not agree among themselves, and were often in conflict with the majority in the House of Commons. Lord Sunderland, one of the leading men in the kingdom, advised William that he should choose all his ministers from the Whigs, as that party had the majority in the House of Commons. The results were so satisfactory that in time the custom grew up of always choosing the whole Cabinet from whichever party could, for the time being, count on the support of the representatives of the people.

Mary II

200. **Opposition to William**—It could not be expected that everybody in England would be delighted to have one king sent away and another put on the throne, and there were

two classes of people that were especially opposed to the course taken by the country. The leaders of one party were five of the seven bishops whom James had sent to the Tower, and with them were several hundred other clergymen. They were honest in their opposition, and gave up their churches rather than take the oath of allegiance to William as their lawful king; for the reason that they refused to swear they were called "Non-jurors."

The other class of people that were opposed to William were called Jacobites, from *Jacobus*, the Latin word for James. Some of them firmly believed that James ought to be on the throne; and some merely thought it quite possible that he might succeed in regaining his power, and wished to stand well with him if such should be the case. The Jacobites were more numerous in Ireland and in Scotland than in England. James knew that to land in England and try to regain the crown was hopeless, but he thought that he could make the attempt either in Ireland or in Scotland, as he felt sure that in those countries there were many who would support him. He trusted that after his rule had been established in these two lands, he would be strong enough to venture to go to England.

201. **The struggle in Scotland.**—The hopes of James, however, were soon shattered in Scotland. In southern Scotland, even more than in England, the actions of James had roused the bitter opposition of the people. Shortly after the news of his flight was received, a convention met at Edinburgh, deposed the king, and offered the crown to William and Mary. William at once accepted the crown and sent several of his best regiments to hold the country.

There was one man in Scotland who was deeply dissatisfied with the action of the convention. This was the famous John Graham of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee, better known in the Scottish ballads as "Bonnie Dundee." He had been one of the most active agents of the king in the persecutions of the Covenanters, and was warmly attached to the cause of his royal master. He immediately fled to the Highlands and endeavoured to raise the clans on behalf of King James. So well did he succeed that soon he had an army of Highlanders who were ready to follow wherever he would lead. He at once marched southwards, and, in July, 1689, met the Lowland troops, under the command of General Mackay, in the pass of Killiecrankie. The Lowlanders were completely routed; but Dundee was killed in the moment of victory, and as there was no one to hold the Highland army together, it soon melted away. In a very short time all the clans submitted to the authority of William, and Scotland was once more at peace.

Viscount Dundee

An oath of allegiance to William and Mary was demanded from the Highland chiefs. All of them, with the exception of Macdonald of Glencoe, had taken the oath before the appointed time had expired. He was an old man, and a proud man, and in order to show his independence, he put off taking the oath until the last minute. Unfortunately, when he went to give in his submission, he went to the wrong place, and was, in consequence, seven days late in taking the oath. Dalrymple of Stair, who was in charge of the government in Scotland, resolved to make an example of Macdonald, and strike terror into the hearts of the Highland chiefs. Early in 1692, Captain Campbell, with a small band of soldiers, was sent to Glencoe. They remained with the clansmen for some time, living on friendly terms with them and completely winning their confidence. Twelve days after his arrival, after a night of feasting, Campbell and the men fell upon the defenceless people and shot them down in cold blood. Most of those who escaped perished in the mountains from cold and hunger. The massacre of Glencoe, as it was called, was neither forgotten nor forgiven in the Highlands for many generations.

202. **The struggle in Ireland.**—In the meantime, early in 1689, James, accompanied by a number of French officers, landed in Ireland, where he found strong support. Except in the north, the people of Ireland had scarcely been affected by the new doctrines. In the neighbourhood of Dublin, there were a few English Protestants, but the south was almost wholly Roman Catholic. Tyrconnel, who had been the Lord Deputy of Ireland, had recruited a large army, and with these he now took the field on behalf of James. The few Protestants in the south fled in terror, while those in the north either escaped to England or gathered at Londonderry and at Enniskillen. Londonderry was besieged by James, but the inhabitants, led by an aged clergyman, George Walker, and Major Henry Baker, resisted bravely. The siege lasted one hundred and five days. Thirty thousand people of both sexes and all ages were shut up in the city and they were starving. A pound of tallow was worth four shillings, a rat one shilling. Four thousand people had already perished, when three ships from England broke the boom that had been constructed across the river Foyle, and brought food to the starving people. Three days later the men of Enniskillen were victorious at Newton Butler over a large force that was advancing to besiege their city.

The heroic defence of Londonderry had aroused such admiration in England that the Duke of Schomberg was at once sent with an army to Ireland. Little was accomplished, however, as Schomberg was a very cautious general and refused to risk everything on the result of a single battle. Early in 1690, the Irish army was strengthened by the addition of six thousand French veterans, while an equal number of the untrained Irish troops were taken into the service of France. Seeing clearly that he had made a mistake in sending such a small force under Schomberg, William made up his mind to go to Ireland in person with an army large enough to ensure victory. About the middle of June, 1690, he landed at Carrick-fergus and advanced towards the Boyne at the head of an army of thirty-six thousand men. The combined Irish and French armies occupied a very strong position on the opposite side of the river. In spite of the opposition of his generals, William determined to attempt the crossing, and on July 1st the attempt was made. Although wounded in a skirmish on the preceding day, William led his troops in person and won a signal victory, marred, however, by the death of Schomberg and of Walker, the heroic defender of Londonderry. James, at a comfortable distance, had watched the Irish fight for him and his crown. When he saw that his men were losing, he fled to Dublin and told the magistrates that he had always heard that the Irish were worthless soldiers. It is no wonder that an Irishman called out to one of William's men, "Change kings with us and we will fight you again." James soon passed over to France, while William followed up his success at the Boyne by the capture of Waterford. At Limerick, however, the Irish, under Patrick Sarsfield, successfully defied him, and at the end of August he returned to England.

General Ginkell, who commanded the English forces in Ireland during the campaign of 1691, was successful in capturing Athlone, and later in defeating the Irish and French at Aghrim, where General St. Ruth, the French commander was killed. The last hope of the Irish now lay in the successful defence of Limerick. But Ginkell was a brilliant soldier, and so hard did he press the attack on the town that Sarsfield was compelled to surrender. The Irish soldiers, as many as wished, were allowed to leave the country; several thousand of them, with Sarsfield at their head, abandoned their native land to become soldiers in the army of the French king.

The surrender of Limerick put an end to the civil war in Ireland and restored Protestant ascendency, but the promises made at the surrender were not kept. The English Parliament set the example of intolerance; for the first time Roman Catholics were excluded from the Irish Parliament and were deprived of many of the rights they had enjoyed as private citizens. The native Irish were persecuted and fined, and their lands were confiscated. In 1699 the export of woollen manufactures was entirely prohibited, thus ruining the most flourishing industry in Ireland. This outrageous treatment was begun at this time, but the worst of it was carried on after the reign of William had ended.

203. **The struggle with France**—Almost from his boyhood, William had been engaged in a struggle with his hereditary foe, Louis XIV, king of France. Indeed, it was largely with the hope of obtaining powerful aid in his fight with his old time enemy, that he had accepted the English throne. Louis, on his part, had long been trying to conquer Holland, and now, to have William not only oppose him successfully in Holland, but also to rule England to the loss of his friend James, was more than he could bear. War was declared in 1689, but for a time the English armies took little part in the fighting on the continent.

During the absence of William in Ireland, England was in a position of extreme danger. The French had been allowed to transport troops and supplies to Ireland almost without opposition; the landing of the six thousand French soldiers sent to the aid of James had not been opposed at all. Encouraged by this neglect, the French now gathered a large fleet under the Count of Tourville, with the object of destroying the English navy. In a battle off Beachy Head in 1690, the English and Dutch fleets, under Admiral Torrington, suffered a severe defeat, saved only from an overwhelming disaster by the obstinate courage of the Dutch. Tourville was master of the Channel; the descent of a French army was expected every moment. But Louis, although strongly urged by James, let the opportunity pass. Troops were hurriedly sent back from Ireland; levies were made in London and throughout the country; even the Jacobites themselves were prepared to resist the invasion of a foreign foe. By the time that William returned from Ireland, the peril of invasion was over, and England "had passed safely through one of the most dangerous crises in its national history."

Two years later, while William was on the continent, an elaborate plan was proposed for the invasion of England. Louis trusted that he had won over Admiral Russell, the commander of the English fleet, who was in strong sympathy with the exiled king. But the professional pride of

Russell was aroused, and when, in command of the English and Dutch fleets, he met the French off La Hogue, he at once attacked them and, after a severe encounter, put them to flight. This victory put an end to all thoughts of a successful attempt upon England. In commemoration of the battle of La Hogue, Mary gave up her palace at Greenwich, and turned it into a home for disabled seamen.

The war was now carried on vigorously on the continent. William succeeded in joining several of the continental powers in a confederacy against Louis, and himself took the field in command of the allied armies. He was unsuccessful at the battles of Steinkirk and Landen, but the power of France was being gradually weakened. At length, in 1697, the treaty of Ryswick was signed, by which Louis acknowledged William as king of England, and gave back all the territory he had won during the war.

A new danger now presented itself. The king of Spain was old and he had no children to inherit his throne and his large possessions. William was anxious that the Spanish dominions should not be united with those of France, as France would then become powerful enough to encroach upon other nations. Negotiations were accordingly entered into which resulted in the French king agreeing to a Partition Treaty, by which it was decided that a prince of Bavaria should succeed to the Spanish throne. The prince died, and a second Partition Treaty was signed, by which the crown and the greater part of the Spanish possessions were to go to a son of the emperor of Austria. When, however, the king of Spain died in 1700, he left his crown to a grandson of Louis XIV. The French king now refused to be bound by the Partition Treaty, and prepared to aid his grandson. William knew that he must fight, or his life work would be undone. But few people in England felt like engaging in another war; many of them did not believe that a union of France and Spain would threaten England with any real danger. Just at this time, however, James II died, and Louis, contrary to the treaty of Ryswick, immediately acknowledged James II as king of England. This roused the English people to a sense of their danger, and William found no difficulty in carrying on his preparations for war. He succeeded in forming a "Grand Alliance" among the powers of Europe for the purpose of defeating the plans of Louis. William did not live to take any part in the war, the conduct of which was entrusted to John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough.

204. **The Act of Settlement, 1701.**—As William was childless, and the only son of the Princess Anne had just died, Parliament was called upon to settle the succession to the throne. The Act of Settlement, passed in 1701, provided that in the event of Anne dying childless, the crown should pass to the Princess Sophia of Hanover, the granddaughter of James I, and her heirs, if Protestants. The Act also provided that the judges of the kingdom should hold their positions during good behaviour, and prevented their being removed at the pleasure of the king.

William's health had always been delicate, and now gave cause for grave anxiety. He died in 1702, as the result of a fall from his horse, which is said to have stumbled over a molehill. The Jacobites were afterwards accustomed to drink to the health of the mole, "the little gentleman in black velvet," as they called him, that had caused the death of the king.

205. **Feeling towards William and Mary.**—William's life in England was not pleasant, but it may be that the secret of much of the discomfort he had to meet was that his manner was cold and reserved. He was neither fascinating in his manner nor handsome, and he knew English so imperfectly that he wrote his speech to Parliament in French. The people were ready to criticize whatever William did. But he went on conscientiously to the end of his reign. He was never popular, and it was felt that his chief interests lay rather on the continent than in England. But the English people were fond of Mary. She was gentle and kind, and as eager to do well by them as her husband was. William was heart-broken when she died in 1694, for she seems to have been the only person in the world who really understood and appreciated this silent, undemonstrative man.

206. **Financial reforms.**—The heavy cost of the wars during the reign of William made it necessary, in order to lighten the burden of taxation, to borrow money from the wealthy people of the kingdom for the purposes of the government. In 1694, William Paterson, a Scotsman, suggested that a bank be established, which would receive deposits from the people and lend the money to the government. The plan was adopted, and in this way the Bank of England, probably the strongest financial institution in the world, had its beginning. A further financial reform was the recoinage of all the money in the kingdom. Much of it was worn out and mutilated by clipping. The coin had been made with smooth edges, so that with a sharp knife one could cut a strip of metal from a coin and it would not be noticed. But the new coins were made with milled edges, in order that no metal could be cut off without showing. The public sent in their old money to the government, and received in exchange fresh, new coins of full weight, the government bearing the loss of the difference in value.

Costumes, Time of William and Mary

SUMMARY

In William, England had at last a king who wished to make laws for the good of the land, even though they lessened his own power. Increased religious liberty was granted, and more freedom was given to the press. Nevertheless, there was opposition to William's rule by the "Non-jurors" and the Jacobites. James's hopes of regaining the crown in Scotland were shattered by the death of Dundee, but, with the assistance of Louis of France, he made a desperate attempt to hold Ireland. The attempt failed and James was forced to return to France. Louis attempted to invade England, but was unsuccessful. The war was closed by the treaty of Ryswick, but soon broke out again. The Act of Settlement was passed in 1701. The Bank of England was established and the coinage reformed.

7. ANNE. 1702–1714

207. **Brilliant reign of Queen Anne.**—The accession of the new queen made no change in the government of England. Anne was well liked by all the English people, although she was a strong supporter of the established church, and disliked all dissenters. She was easy of approach and charitable towards the poor. In addition, the death of her children, one by one, had touched the hearts of the people, and they gave her a hearty support during her reign. Though Anne herself was without great ability, yet the twelve years of her sovereignty form one of the most interesting periods in literature and one of the most brilliant in military success that have ever occurred in the whole history of the British empire.

ANNE

208. **Union between England and Scotland, 1707.**—One important subject which everybody was discussing at this time was whether England and Scotland should be united. Since

the reign of James I, one hundred years before, the two countries had had one king, but two Parliaments and different laws. The Scots and English had been constantly at war with each other, and a feeling of intense hatred had grown up between them. One cause of this was the religious persecutions under Charles II and James.

Scotland at this time was a very poor country. It had little commerce and little agriculture, and the peasants were for the most part miserably poor. Indeed, one of the greatest of the Scottish patriots gave it as his opinion that the only way to cure the evils of poverty was to make all the poorer people serfs. During the latter part of William's reign, the merchants of Scotland had entered into a gigantic trading scheme, called the "Darien Company," which was to bring great wealth to the country by opening up a trade with the Isthmus of Darien. The company failed, and thousands were ruined. The failure of the scheme was ascribed to the hostility of the English merchants, and this made the feeling in Scotland even more bitter.

The wiser men in both Scotland and England saw that the only remedy for the state of affairs was union between the two countries. Scotland, under a separate government, with its love for the Stuarts, was a constant source of danger to England, while, on the other hand, Scotland could not help being benefited commercially by the union. The question caused much discussion and much bitterness, but the result was that in 1707 the two countries were united under the name of Great Britain. It was agreed that there should be a single Parliament for the united nations, in which Scotland should have adequate representation. Scotland was to keep the Presbyterian form of worship, to retain her own law courts, to have free trade with England and equal trading privileges in all British colonies. A new national flag was adopted, made by placing the cross of St. George over the cross of St. Andrew.

209. **The War of the Spanish Succession.**—The war against Louis, begun during the reign of William, was continued with great vigour by Marlborough. The allies at first included England, Holland, Prussia, and Austria, but these

were later joined by Portugal and Savoy. Marlborough had a hard task to perform in reconciling the various conflicting interests, and his greatness is shown quite as much by the way in which he held the allies together as by the victories he won. The campaigns of 1702 and 1703 were without definite results. But in 1704, Marlborough, to prevent an attack by the French on Vienna, by a wonderfully rapid march, succeeded in uniting his army with that of Prince Eugene of Savoy, and gave battle to the French and Bavarian armies at the village of Blenheim on the Danube River. The brilliant strategy of Marlborough enabled the allies to win an overwhelming victory. Blenheim is one of the decisive battles of history, as it shattered forever Louis' dream of sovereignty over Europe; the French armies were no longer considered invincible. The people of England were so grateful to the duke that they built him a palace, with grounds twelve miles in circumference; and that the victory might never be forgotten, they named the palace Blenheim. In the museum at Blenheim Palace is the duke's letter to his wife announcing his victory; it was written while he was on horseback, and after fifteen continuous hours in the saddle.

Duke of Marlborough

In the same year that Blenheim was won, Sir George Rooke, in command of an English fleet, captured Gibralter, and held it against the combined fleets of France and Spain. This strong fortress has ever since remained in possession of Great Britain. In the next year the Earl of Peterborough won several important victories in Spain, and reduced a portion of the country.

The campaign of 1706 saw the brilliant victory of Ramillies and the expulsion of the French from Italy, but in the next year there was nothing but disaster. Again, in 1708, Marlborough defeated the French at Oudenarde, and this was followed in 1709 by another decisive victory at Malplaquet. The allies suffered severely. In the meantime, they had lost ground in Spain; the Spanish people had risen against them, so that by 1711 they had scarcely a a foothold in the country.

In addition to the difficulty that Marlborough had in keeping the allies on friendly terms with one another, he had a greater difficulty to contend with at home. Party jealousy reached its height in the reign of Anne. The Whigs were in power and were favourable to the war, while the Tories wished for peace and desired the return of the house of Stuart. The Tories, who hated the duke, did everything in their power to ruin his authority and to undermine his influence with the queen. For many years Anne had been governed, in great things as well as small, by the Duchess of Marlborough. The name of the duchess was Sarah, and people used to say, "Queen Anne reigns, but Queen Sarah rules." These two ladies wrote to each other almost every day. They dropped their titles and took feigned names; the duchess was "Mrs. Freeman" and the queen was "Mrs. Morley." After the war had gone on for some time these two devoted friends fell out and the queen took a new favourite, Mrs. Masham, who was a Tory and wished to end the war. Soon afterwards the queen dismissed her Whig ministers, and the Tories, who were bent on bringing the war to an end, came into power. Marlborough was accused of taking money in connection with the army contracts, and was removed from his command.

Fashionable Lady in the Time of Queen Anne

The allies were forced to join in the peace negotiations, and finally, in 1713, the treaty of Utrecht was signed. Substantial advantages were gained by Great Britain. Nova Scotia was given up by France, and all claims to Newfoundland and the Hudson Bay Territory were abandoned. Spain ceded Gibraltar and Minorca and agreed to allow one English ship each year to trade with the Spanish possessions in America. The French king also promised that the crowns of France and Spain should not be united, and that he would recognize the Protestant succession in Great Britain.

210. **Social progress and customs.**—It is difficult for us to picture the England of two hundred years ago. The population was about equal to that of London to-day. There were no large factories, no steamboats, no canals, no railways, not even good roads. Coaches were coming into use, but people of quality usually travelled in sedan chairs. Wool was extensively raised and made into cloth in the same valleys where the sheep pastured. The hum of the spinning-wheel and the click of the shuttle made music in every cottage; even children of six or eight years were taught to earn their own living. Eleven hundred looms were in operation in Taunton alone. Stockings, introduced in the time of Elizabeth, were becoming common in the reign of Anne, and nine thousand stocking-looms were now in operation.

Some iron was smelted, but only by charcoal, and this took so much wood that the smelting business was not carried on to any extent. Very few articles of iron were made in Britain; even frying-pans and anvils were imported. Coarse pottery was becoming common, but the peasants still ate off wooden trenchers. Fine porcelain was brought from Holland for the wealthy classes.

The peasants lived in miserable hovels with mud floors and thatched roofs. They received less than one shilling a day, and in summer worked from 5 A.M. to 7.30 P.M., with two hours off for meals. They had few comforts, wore coarse homespun clothes, ate little wheat bread, never tasted tea or coffee, and had meat perhaps twice a week. They were ignorant and often vicious; their pleasures were coarse but hearty—country fairs, pedlars, dances, wrestling matches, and foot-races.

The middle classes, chiefly farmers, tradesmen, and owners of small manufactories, lived in rude plenty. Their homes were comfortable, even luxurious. They received some education and made steady progress. Of the upper classes, a fine beau of the day may be taken as a good type. From ten o'clock until one he received visits in bed, wearing a powdered wig, and taking a pinch of snuff or a whiff at a smelling bottle. By three o'clock he was dressed, had perfumed his clothes and perhaps tinted his cheeks with carmine. He now dipped his handkerchief in rose water, carefully tied his cravat, cocked his hat upon his head, and sallied out in his chair to a coffee-house, there to listen to the latest gossip of the court and the street.

Dandy of the Seventeenth Century

Tea had not yet become common, but coffee and chocolate were popular drinks, and houses where they were sold became favourite meeting-places for all classes of people. Newspapers were as yet few and gave very little news. The coffee-houses were centres of gossip and conversation.

211. **Literature under the Stuarts.**—The whole tone of English literature was changed completely during the Puritan domination. The Puritans turned their attention particularly to the life beyond. They felt that this life is a constant warfare between good and evil, and their literature reflects this conflict. The "Paradise Lost" of John Milton, the great Puritan poet, is an epic of the warfare of good and evil. In the sublimity of his subject and the nobility of his ideals, he is the true representative of all that is best in Puritanism. At the Restoration all was changed again. The poetry of France was the model

followed, and in this, more attention was paid to the manner of expressing the thought than to the thought itself. The representative poet of this period is John Dryden. In his poems, Dryden, in exquisite verse, appeals rather to the minds of men than to their feelings. His poems are for the most part cold and formal ; he wrote of philosophy, politics, natural science and religion. The loss of poetry was the gain of prose.

In Anne's day there was far less that was exciting and inspiring than in the reign of Elizabeth, and people wrote but little poetry that seems really noble and great; yet the ability to write prose had been developing, and the prose of this period is so graceful and musical, and so precise in using the right word for the thought, that even after these two hundred years it is as great a pleasure to read it as it was in Queen Anne's time. Some of the best of it is found in Addison's articles in the *Spectator*. This paper made no attempt to tell the news of the day, but presented brilliant essays that jested good-humouredly at the faults of the times, and interesting sketches of what was going on in the busy English world. Many numbers were written by Addison alone. Dean Swift, the author of "Gulliver's Travels," and Daniel Defoe, the author of "Robinson Crusoe," were among the most brilliant political writers of the day.

Dean Swift

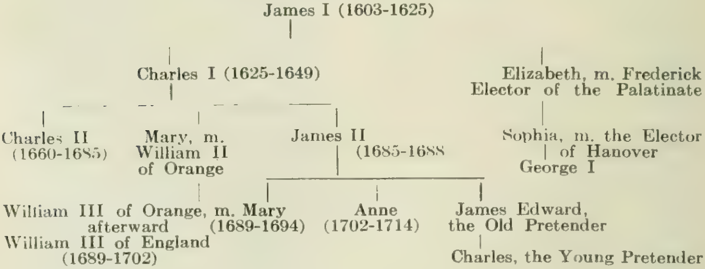
The works of Alexander Pope well represent the poetry of the age of Anne. His ideas were keen and sensible and well expressed, and his couplets are, therefore, so often quoted that no one can read his poems without finding many familiar lines; and yet the poetry of the time does not make us feel as if the writer was so full of lofty and beautiful thoughts that he could not help writing, but rather as if he had tried his best to put every thought that he did have in the words that would express it most strikingly.

212. **The last Stuart sovereign.**—Anne was the last of the Stuarts to wear the English crown. Her half-brother, James Edward, still lived, and it is quite possible that he might have been made king of Great Britain, if he had been willing to become a Protestant. Anne's children had all died, and the crown went, as Parliament had decided in the Act of Settlement, to a German prince, George, Elector of Hanover, the son of the Princess Sophia. Britain had had a Norman king and a Dutch king; now, she was to be ruled by a German.

SUMMARY

Queen Anne's reign is famous for the excellence of its prose literature and for its foreign victories. To prevent an alliance between France and Spain and the consequent triumph of France in Europe, England declared war against Louis XIV. Under the Duke of Marlborough there were brilliant victories on land, and under Sir George Rooke the strong fortress of Gibraltar was taken. By the treaty of Utrecht Great Britain gained Gibraltar, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and the Hudson Bay Territory. Scotland and England were united, though the union was not heartily desired by either country.

THE HOUSE OF STUART


James I (1603-1625)
Charles I (1625-1649)
Elizabeth, m. Frederick Elector of the Palatinate
Charles II (1660-1685)
Mary, m. William II of Orange
James II (1685-1688
Sophia, m. the Elector of Hanover
George I
William III of Orange, m. Mary afterward (1689-1694) William III of England (1689-1702)
Anne (1702-1714)
James Edward, the Old Pretender
Charles, the Young Pretender

CHAPTER VIII

THE HOUSE OF HANOVER

1714– —

1. George I. 1714–1727

213. **Changes in government.**—The new king was in no hurry to leave his German province of Hanover, where he had lived happily for fifty-four years. He was an honourable, well-meaning man, but coarse and lacking in intelligence. He could not speak English, and the government of Great Britain by a king and a Parliament was a complete mystery to him. He had no choice, therefore, but to entrust the management of affairs to his Cabinet, which was made up entirely of Whigs. The rule of the Cabinet had been growing more and more independent of the sovereign. It became more so in this reign, as George could not understand English, and did not attend its meetings. Some one had to be chosen to preside in the place of the king. To him the title of premier, or prime minister, was afterwards given. The first to be so called was Sir Robert Walpole, who became the head of the Cabinet in 1721.

George I

214. **The Jacobite rising, 1715.**—The Jacobites had allowed George to be crowned without making any trouble. But the exclusion of the Tories from office, and the belief that the Whigs would repeal the laws against dissenters,

made the strong supporters of the English church very angry, although they were not prepared to go to extremes. In Scotland, however, the Stuarts were always certain of loyal support, and the Earl of Mar raised a large force in the interest of the "Pretender," James Edward, the son of James II, who caused himself to be proclaimed king. Battles followed at Sheriffmuir and Preston; the first was indecisive, and the second resulted in the surrender of the Jacobite army. Unaware of these reverses, the Pretender hurried over to Scotland with only six followers. He had expected to bring with him French soldiers, but Louis XIV had died, and the new king would give no aid.

Unfortunately for the cause of James Edward, the more people saw of him the less enthusiasm they felt. He was heavy and slow, and seemed to have no interest in the men who were risking so much to support him. When King George's forces were upon them, the courageous Scots wished to put him in their midst, and fight till the last man fell; but their proclaimed king preferred not to fight. He quietly sailed away to France, leaving his friends to manage as best they could. A few were put to death for treason, but on the whole the prisoners were leniently treated.

215. **The Septennial Act, 1716.**—The Triennial Act, passed in the reign of William III, had fixed three years as the life of a Parliament. Now, in the disturbed condition of the country following the troubles with the Jacobites, it was felt to be dangerous and inconvenient to have frequent elections, and accordingly a Septennial Act was passed extending the term during which a Parliament might serve to seven years. This Act is, in 1910, still in force.

216. **The South Sea Bubble.**—The reign of George I is always associated with a financial scheme that—after it failed—was called the South Sea Bubble, and that resulted in ruin to many thousand Englishmen. The South Sea Company had a monopoly of British trade with the Spanish colonies in America, and the members had become immensely rich. In order to secure government support in their enterprise, and so increase their profits, the company offered to pay off a large part of the national

debt. They said to the government, "We will give you seven and one-half million pounds if you will allow people to exchange your bonds for our stock; we shall be satisfied with a smaller rate of interest than you have been paying these people, and we will buy out the claims of those who do not wish to exchange." The people were so convinced of the immense profits to be made, and so certain of the standing of the company, that the stock was eagerly taken. Soon purchasers were offering for it ten times its face value.

Then arose a perfect mania for speculation; people were ready to put their money into anything. Soon "the bubble" burst and thousands were ruined. Members of the Cabinet had encouraged the scheme, and the losers were so indignant with them that they compelled them to resign; indeed one of the Cabinet was expelled from Parliament, and another poisoned himself. A new Cabinet was formed with Walpole as prime minister. He had, from the first, condemned the South Sea scheme, and was now the only man that had the popular confidence. The private property of the officers of the company was seized and distributed among those who had been the chief losers. The government also came to the rescue of the company, and something was done to relieve the general distress.

SIR ROBERT WALPOLE

217. **Sir Robert Walpole.**—The real ruler of Great Britain during the reign of George I was Robert Walpole. His Cabinet was the first one formed according to the method that is followed to-day; that is, the king gave to his prime minister the power to choose the other members of the Cabinet. They were chosen from the Whig party, as the Whigs then had a majority in the House of Commons. Walpole was an excellent financier and man of business. He gave the country

rest from wars for twenty years, and was careful not to stir up opposition among the people. He did not dare to repeal the laws excluding the dissenters from office, but he carried through Parliament an Act to give relief to those who did not obey the law.

As a man, Walpole was coarse and cynical. He had no sympathy with scholarly men, and did nothing to encourage learning. His rule was a one-man rule, for he firmly believed that, in order to carry on the government successfully, each member of the Cabinet should be loyal to its head. Under him England prospered. Her commerce was extended, her agriculture improved and her manufactures increased. He was just the man that England needed at this juncture.

In 1727, while Walpole was still prime minister, George I died suddenly. On the road to Hanover he was stricken with apoplexy, and died in a few minutes.

SUMMARY

The lax rule of George I gave all power into the hands of the Whigs, and left Sir Robert Walpole free to introduce many forms and details of government that have remained in force for nearly two centuries. Encouraged by the discontent of the Tories, the Scottish friends of the Pretender made an unsuccessful effort in his behalf. About the middle of the reign, a frenzy for speculation swept over the land. The failure of these schemes, and especially of the South Sea Bubble, reduced a great many people to poverty.

2. George II. 1727–1760

218. **The king and Walpole.**—Unlike his father, the second George could speak English, and could understand the language well enough to take part in public affairs. He had little ability, but had a high regard for justice. He would not knowingly allow any one to be wronged. He was a brave soldier, too; he had fought in the Netherlands, and in his own reign he commanded an army in another European war.

As a young man, George II had so disliked Walpole that it was generally expected when he became king he would dismiss the prime minister. But the king was managed in most things by his clever wife, Queen Caroline, who believed that Walpole was the best man in Great Britain to preside over the government. She easily persuaded the king to retain him in office.

George II

219. **The Spanish war.** — By the treaty of Utrecht, the British trade with South America was limited to a single vessel each year. This pleased neither the Spanish planters nor the British traders. The latter were eager to extend a trade which brought them large fortunes; the former were always ready to buy goods from merchants who gave them better prices than those who sent goods direct from Spain. In consequence, an extensive smuggling trade grew up, which the Spanish government in vain tried to prevent. In the effort, many British subjects were captured and cruelly treated. Tales of Spanish cruelty were brought to England and aroused great excitement. Finally, one Captain Jenkins came before the House of Commons, and exhibited an ear which he declared had been cut off by Spanish officials in the West Indies, and given to him with the words, "Go, take that to your king."

There had been a popular cry for a war with Spain, and this tale of Jenkins's ear roused a storm which Walpole, with all his love of peace, could not resist. Very much against his will, he was forced to declare war in 1739. When he heard the sound of the church bells that the people were ringing in their joy, he said, "They are ringing their bells now; they will be wringing their hands soon." His foresight was soon justified, as unexpected trouble was in store for Britain. The capture of Porto Bello, one of the Spanish possessions in South America, called forth a declaration from France that she would not permit a British settlement on the mainland, and two French fleets were sent to enforce the demand for withdrawal. At this moment, the death of Charles VI, the Emperor of Germany, brought on a struggle in Europe into which Britain was quickly drawn.

220. **War of the Austrian Succession.**—A short time before his death, Charles VI had secured the consent of the European powers to an arrangement by which his crown and his hereditary dominions as Emperor of Austria, would pass to his daughter Maria Theresa. On his death, however, Prussia at once broke the agreement, and seized the Austrian province of Silesia. Britain entered the field to support Maria Theresa, largely because France was giving aid to her enemies. The war was feebly urged by Walpole, and this, together with an unsuccessful attack by Admiral Vernon on Cartagena, so enraged the British people that, in 1742, Walpole was forced to resign.

Lord Carteret, who succeeded Walpole, was an aggressive war minister, and was heartily supported by the king. The Spaniards were compelled by a naval blockade to remain inactive, while George II, at the head of a British and Hanoverian army, was met by the French at Dettingen. George fought bravely and won a victory. Since his time no English king has led an army into battle. Two years later the French won a victory at Fontenoy, but this was more than made up for by the capture of Louisburg, which fell before an attack of the New Englanders under Colonel Pepperell, assisted by a British fleet. The war dragged on for two years longer, and was finally brought to a close by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. This treaty restored Louisburg to the French.

221. **The last effort of the Stuarts, 1745.**—Walpole had always said that whenever England went to war with France, there would be an attempt to restore the Stuarts to the throne, and this happened before the War of the Austrian Succession was ended. James Edward did not attempt to come again, but his son, Charles Edward, the "Young Pretender," came over the sea with only seven companions, and landed in the north of Scotland. The Highland clans rallied around "Bonnie Prince Charlie,"

and he soon had a force of six thousand men. With these he captured Edinburgh and attacked the king's troops at Prestonpans, where he won a complete victory.

Flushed with success, the young Pretender now invaded England and marched as far south as Derby. England was in a panic, and even the king prepared for instant flight. But few joined the invading army, and the prince, fearing that he would be surrounded, retreated to Scotland. The king's army, under the command of the Duke of Cumberland, followed, and the two forces met at Culloden Moor, where the prince suffered a terrible defeat. A reward of thirty thousand pounds was offered for his capture, but by the aid of a Highland lady, Flora Macdonald, he succeeded, after many romantic adventures, in reaching France in safety. This was the last attempt to restore the crown to the Stuarts.

Charles Edward Stuart

After the battle of Culloden Moor the Highlanders were treated with great severity. Strict laws were passed in the effort to break up the clan system, even the wearing of the Highland dress being forbidden. A little later, however, several Highland regiments were added to the British army, and the Highlanders were thus given a chance to follow their military bent by enlisting.

222. **The Methodist movement.**—During the early part of the eighteenth century the moral and spiritual life of England had sunk to a low ebb. The clergy of the established church were worldly and without any real influence over their people. Bishops were often favourites of the

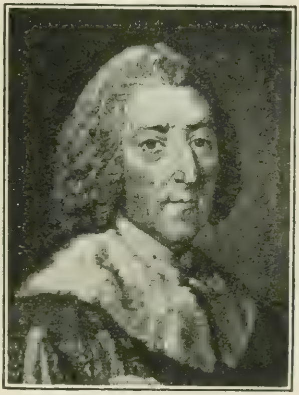
ministers in power, and looked for appointments mainly to draw the large incomes attached to their sees. There were, of course, many simple, earnest men among both the clergy and the bishops, but very many more were both careless and ignorant. The dissenters were far from being as earnest and godly as they had been a century before. The lower orders of the people were ignorant and vicious. The labouring poor were quite neglected, especially in the towns and in the mining districts. Ignorant, dirty, ragged, and poorly housed, their lives were a cheerless, hopeless grind. Drunkenness was a common vice of the people.

But a great change was at hand. About 1735, a small group of students at Oxford began to attract much attention by their meetings for prayer and religious exercises. So enthusiastic and so methodical were they in their habits of devotion that they were given the nickname of "Methodists." From this earnest band of students spread a great religious revival which was to have a powerful effect on the spiritual and social life of the whole community. The two great leaders of the movement were John Wesley and George Whitfield. These men threw themselves with whole-hearted devotion into the work of preaching the Gospel to the poor and the outcast of England. They travelled up and down the country, preaching in barns and houses and in the open air, and teaching the truths of the Bible to all who came to listen. As the bishops opposed this irregular work, the "Methodists" formed a society of their own, and accepted the name given at first in derision. Before the death of John Wesley in 1791, they counted their membership at more than one hundred thousand. Many of the great humanitarian movements of the latter part of the

JOHN WESLEY

eighteenth century may be traced to the influence of the Methodist revival.

223. **William Pitt and the Seven Years' War, 1756-63.**—In spite of the fact that Britain and France had been engaged in fighting for some time in America and in India, it was not until 1756 that war was formally declared in Europe. On the one side were arrayed Austria, France, and Russia, and on the other Prussia, Great Britain, and some of the smaller German states. Great Britain did not take an active part in the continental war, but assisted the Prussians with large sums of money.



William Pitt,
Earl of Chatham

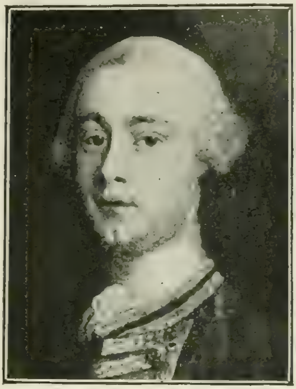
Great Britain at this time was badly prepared for war. The prime minister, the Duke of Newcastle, was utterly incompetent. He knew and cared more about the buying of votes than about the management of a great war. The army was lacking in discipline, and under the command of men who knew little of the military art. The navy, too, at the very outset met with a most disastrous check. A French expedition had been sent against the island of Minorca, which at that time belonged to Great Britain. The garrison defended itself bravely, and Admiral Byng, with a British fleet, was despatched to its relief. When the admiral reached the island, he decided that the French fleet was too strong, and sailed away without making any effort to relieve the garrison, which was finally compelled to surrender. The popular indignation was so great that, six months after his return to England, Byng was tried by court martial, and convicted of not having done his utmost to destroy the enemy's fleet. He was shot on the quarter-deck of his own ship.

Affairs were going from bad to worse when William Pitt took charge of the conduct of the war. Pitt had first attracted attention as an opponent of the peace policy of Walpole, and had been known as the "Boy Patriot." In 1746, he had entered the ministry, but had not, so far, held any position of great importance. The continuous disasters to the British arms, and the feeling of dismay with which these were regarded in the country, brought him to the front. An arrangement was made by which Pitt was given entire control of the war, although Newcastle remained as prime minister. His enthusiasm at once spread itself to the Parliament and to the people. He had great faith in his country and in himself. "I know that I can save the country," he said to a friend, "and no one else can."

The hand of Pitt was soon evident in all the operations of the war. Incompetent officers were allowed no place in either the army or the navy, but young men of ability, even if they were poor and unknown, were given important commands. The Commons gave him its strongest support, and voted large sums of money. He confined his efforts in Europe to giving financial assistance to Frederick, while in America and India he pushed the war with all the energy of which he was capable. Well might Frederick of Prussia say, "England has at length brought forth a man."

224. **The conquest of Canada.**—In America the British had not been successful. General Braddock had been defeated at Fort Duquesne and the greater part of the army destroyed in 1755. In the following year the fortress of Oswego, which commanded Lake Ontario, yielded to the French, and this victory was followed by the seizure of Fort William Henry, an important British stronghold at the southern end of Lake George. But new life was given to the seemingly desperate campaign by Pitt's advent to power. He saw that if anything was to be accomplished, he must send plenty of men and his very best generals, with full authority to act as they thought best. The colonies were urged to co-operate with the king's troops, and they responded by raising a force of twenty thousand men. In 1758 Louisburg, a French stronghold in Cape Breton, was captured,

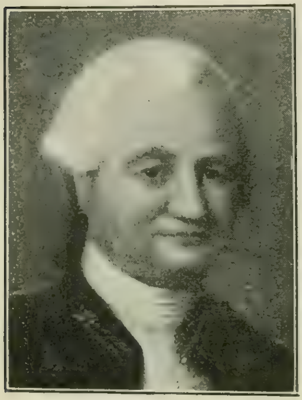
and the British thus secured a strong base of operations for the approaching siege of Quebec. Fort Duquesne and Fort Frontenac likewise yielded to British arms, though a heavy defeat at Ticonderoga counterbalanced these minor successes. Still Pitt's determination never wavered, and while the French general, Montcalm, was supplicating in vain for aid from France, Pitt continued to pour men and money into Canada.


JAMES WOLFE

The year 1759 saw the final concentration of British forces around Quebec. General Wolfe was in command, and opposing him was Montcalm, the brilliant French leader. Wolfe led his men by night up the cliff to the Plains of Abraham, and there was fought the battle which destroyed all hope of French supremacy in America. Both commanders were killed, but the English were victorious, and during the next year the whole of Canada fell into their hands.

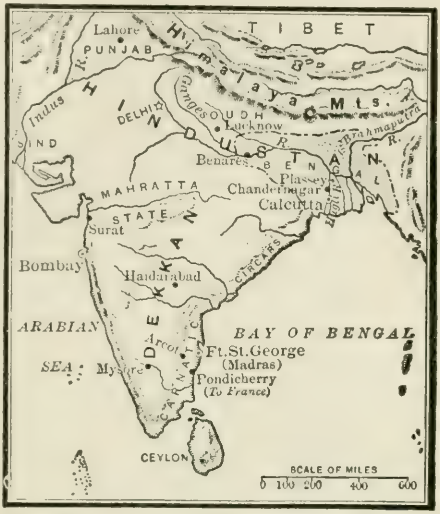
225. **The war in India.**—While Great Britain was gaining an empire in America, a trading company was gaining one for her in the far East. From the time of Elizabeth, the East India Company had been carrying on a thriving trade in India. The company had three principal settlements or factories: on the west, Bombay; on the east, Madras; in the north, Fort William, afterwards named Calcutta. At each of these forts the company kept a small force of sepoys, or native soldiers, under British officers. The French also had a similar trading company, with headquarters at Pondicherry, near Madras. Dupleix, the French governor, an able and ambitious man, was devoted to the service of his country. He formed a plan by which he hoped to stir up the native rulers of India against Britain, and to drive the British East India Company out of Asia. Preparations were made to attack Madras.

A few years before this a wild, reckless lad, named Robert Clive, had been sent to India as a clerk in the service of the East India Company. Clive disliked his clerkship and longed to distinguish himself as a soldier. His opportunity soon came. When the French threatened Madras, he resigned his position and took service as a volunteer. At the capture of the settlement he was taken prisoner, but made his escape. He soon became the life of the British party in India.


Robert Clive

In 1748, the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle restored Madras to the British, but this did not stop the fighting between the two trading companies. Three years later, Clive resolved to put an end to the French plots, and with a small force suddenly appeared before Arcot, the most important place in southern India. The city was captured without difficulty, but Clive was in turn besieged by a mixed force of French and natives under Dupleix. Clive held out stubbornly in spite of the most desperate efforts to dislodge him, and inspired the natives with respect for his strength and skill. Dupleix was finally compelled to give up the siege and was recalled to France in disgrace. The defence of Arcot turned the tide in favour of the British, as the native princes were convinced that the officers and men of the East India Company could fight and hold their own.

There was peace for some years after the successful defence of Arcot. Clive had gone on a visit to England, and returned to India in 1756, just in time to receive the most startling news. Surajah Dowlah, the Nabob of Bengal, had attacked Calcutta and had captured one hundred and forty-six British. These he had imprisoned during a hot summer night in a room twenty feet square. No pen can picture the horrible sufferings of that night in the "Black Hole". In the morning, only twenty-three of the prisoners, haggard and half-insane, were alive. With three thousand troops, about one thousand of whom were British, Clive at once sailed to the relief of Calcutta, and early in the next year recaptured the city. Six months later, in 1757, at Plassey he faced the army of Surajah Dowlah, his little force of three thousand two hundred British and natives being opposed to over fifty thousand. The odds were so great that the British officers advised retreat, but Clive was determined to take the risk. The result was a decisive victory, the army of the Nabob flying in confusion from the field. The battle of Plassey gave the British control of the rich and fertile province of Bengal, and enormously extended their power and influence. While Clive was fighting in Bengal, the French tried once more to regain a foothold in India, but their dreams of dominion were brought to an end by the defeat of their forces at the battle of Wandewash and the capture of Pondicherry in 1761.



THE FIRST BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN INDIA

226. **The war in Europe.**—In the same year that Quebec was captured, two splendid victories in Europe, the one on the land, the other on the sea, had wiped out the disgraces of the last few years. In 1759 the French determined to strike a double blow at Britain by invading the country and by conquering Hanover. For this purpose eighteen thousand men were gathered at Brest, ready to embark under the escort of the French fleet, and an army of fifty thousand

men was marched against Hanover. This latter force was met at Minden, in Prussia, by a combined British and Hanoverian army of forty thousand men, and completely routed. The project to invade Britain was also a failure. Admiral Hawke, who had been for some time watching the French fleet, but had allowed them to escape him, came up with them in Quiberon Bay, among the rocks and shoals off the French coast. Nothing daunted, he determined to attack. "Where there is passage for the enemy, there is passage for me; where a Frenchman can sail, an Englishman can follow; their pilot shall be our pilot; if they go to pieces on the shoals, they will serve as beacons for us; their perils shall be our perils." Two British vessels were wrecked, but the French fleet was ruined.

> ' The Frenchmen turned like a covey down the wind
>   When Hawke came swooping from the West;
> One he sank with all hands, one he caught and pinned,
>   And the shallows and the storm took the rest.
> The guns that should have conquered us they rusted on the shore,
> The men that would have mastered us they drummed and marched no more,
> For England was England, and a mighty brood she bore
>   When Hawke came swooping from the West."

George II died at the height of England's prosperity, when the news of victories was so constant that Horace Walpole said, "We must ask every morning what new victory has been won, for fear we may miss hearing of one." His eldest son having died before him, the throne descended to his grandson, who reigned as George III.

227. **The English novel of home life.**—The modern English novel may be said to have had its beginning in the reign of George I. Story-tellers now began to paint all human life, to describe everyday places and the thoughts and feelings of everyday people. Before this, writers had seemed to feel that no story could be interesting unless its scene was laid in "a country a long way off," or its characters went through a series of the most amazing adventures. The first great English novelist is Samuel Richardson, a printer of London, who wrote a series of letters which he

connected so as to form a continuous story and published under the title of "Pamela." Richardson was followed by Henry Fielding and Lawrence Sterne, both of whom wrote novels that are still read to-day. Some of these novels are very long, and the story "moves" so slowly that our age finds them tedious, while, according to the present taste, others are vulgar in their incidents and coarse in their conversation. Nevertheless, it was a great gain to find that the thoughts and actions of people who were neither rich nor famous were yet full of interest.

228. **A new calendar, 1752.**—One peculiar fact about this reign is that it was really eleven days shorter than the dates of its beginning and end would seem to show. In reckoning time, the year had not been made quite long enough; that is, the almanac year was not quite so long as the sun's year. In the course of centuries, that difference had amounted to about eleven days, and now England made the correction, and the day that would have been September 3rd, 1752, .was called September 14th. This change had been made as early as 1582 by Pope Gregory XIII, but up to this time had not been adopted in England. At first, there was great opposition, for many people felt that in some mysterious way they had been cheated out of those eleven days. Until this time, the year had begun on March 25th, when the sun first came north of the equator, but after this the years were counted from January 1st.

SUMMARY

By the efforts of the Wesleys and Whitfield, Methodism caused a great religious awakening in England. The influence of Sir Robert Walpole kept the land at peace for many years, but after his removal from office George II engaged in the War of the Austrian Succession to uphold the claims of Maria Theresa and to check France. During this war Charles Edward made an attempt to regain the English throne. His defeat at Culloden Moor ended the efforts of the Stuarts to win the crown of England. To check the growing power of France, England engaged in the Seven Years' War. The result in America was the complete triumph of British arms. The French, allied with native princes, attempted to force the East India Company from India. By the military genius of Clive, the company's rights were maintained, and India fell under British rule. In the literary world, the novel of

home life first appeared. In 1752 Great Britain adopted the Gregorian calendar, and henceforth the years began on the first of January.

3. GEORGE III. 1760–1820

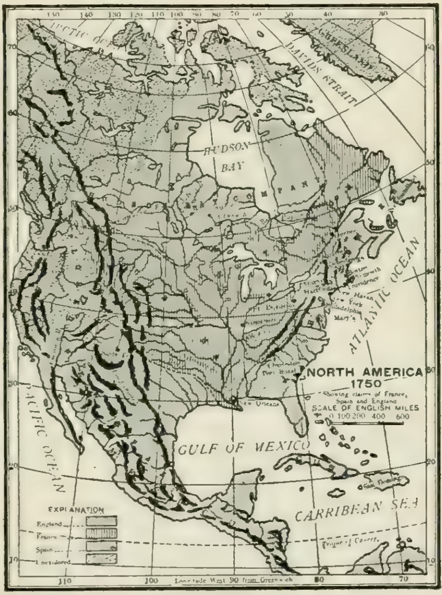
229. **George determines to rule.**—For half a century, the power of the ministers, and particularly of those of the Whig party, had been constantly increasing. When George III came to the throne, he had one very distinct idea in his mind, and that was that the king, and not his ministers, should rule the land. He was, however, a good, kind-hearted man, sincerely anxious to do what was best for the country. He was obstinate, but his obstinacy was not exactly wilfulness; it was rather an inability to see that there was any other way than the one he had chosen.

GEORGE III

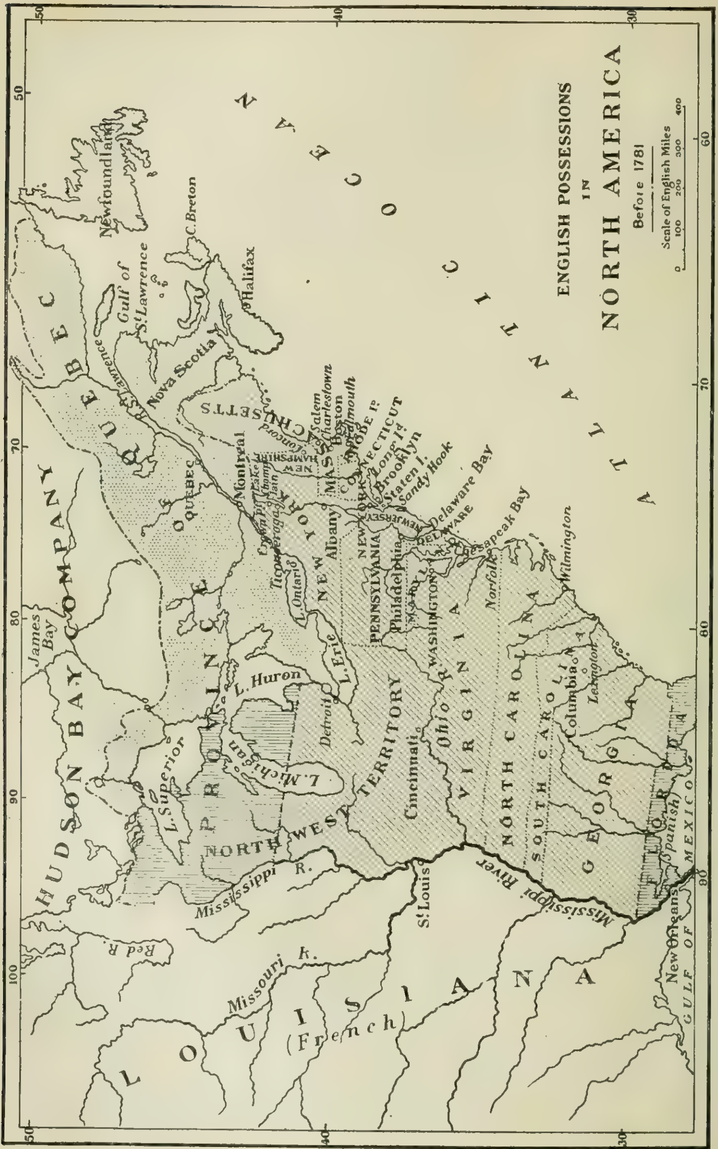
230. **The treaty of Paris.**—George was determined to drive Pitt from power, in order to put in his place a man who would be a mere mouthpiece of the court. The Earl of Bute was accordingly taken into the Cabinet, and he at once headed a strong peace party, the members of which began to clamour for the close of the war. But Pitt had information that Spain had entered into a secret treaty with France against Great Britain, and he proposed to strike a blow at once by seizing the Spanish treasure ships. The peace party would not listen to the proposal, and Pitt was compelled to resign. "Pitt disgraced is worth two victories to us," wrote a French diplomat. Three weeks later Spain declared war, but suffered several severe defeats. Bute, however, who had now become premier, was eager to end the war, and peace was finally concluded at Paris in 1763.

By the terms of the treaty Great Britain gained Canada, including all the territory west of the Mississippi River, Florida, and a number of the West India Islands, while in India the French abandoned all claims to military settlements, but were allowed to resume the factories they had held before the war. The close of the Seven Years' War is a turning-point in the national history of Great Britain, marking as it does the beginning of the era of colonial expansion.

231. **Freedom of elections and of the press.**—During the troubled period that followed the treaty of Paris, a number of important reforms were brought about mainly through the efforts of John Wilkes, a member of Parliament, who was bitterly opposed to the ministry. He had criticized the king's Speech from the Throne in his newspaper, *The North Briton*, and was arrested, along with forty-nine others, on a general warrant, which, without mentioning any names, ordered that all those connected with the publication should be seized. When the case came to trial, Wilkes was released on the grounds that, as he was a member of Parliament, he was free from arrest, and general warrants, such as the one on which he had been arrested, were declared to be illegal. In the meantime, another charge was brought against him, on which he was found guilty and outlawed. After four years spent in France, he returned to England, and was



North America before 1763


ENGLISH POSSESSIONS
IN
NORTH AMERICA
Before 1781
Scale of English Miles
0 100 200 300 400
HUDSON BAY COMPANY
James Bay
QUEBEC
PROVINCE OF QUEBEC
Newfoundland
Gulf of St. Lawrence
C. Breton
Nova Scotia
Halifax
St. Lawrence
ATLANTIC OCEAN
MASSACHUSETTS
NEW HAMPSHIRE
Salem
Charlestown
Boston
Concord
Plymouth
RHODE Id.
CONNECTICUT
Long Id.
Brooklyn
Staten I.
Sandy Hook
Delaware Bay
DELAWARE
NEW JERSEY
NEW YORK
Montreal
Lake Champlain
Crown Pt.
Ticonderoga
Albany
L. Ontario
L. Erie
L. Huron
L. Michigan
L. Superior
Detroit
PENNSYLVANIA
Philadelphia
MARYLAND
WASHINGTON
Chesapeak Bay
Norfolk
VIRGINIA
NORTH CAROLINA
Wilmington
SOUTH CAROLINA
Columbia
Lexington
GEORGIA
FLORIDA (Spanish)
GULF OF MEXICO
New Orleans
NORTH WEST TERRITORY
Cincinnati
Ohio R.
St. Louis
Mississippi River
Mississippi R.
LOUISIANA (French)
Missouri R.
Red R.
50
40
30
50
60
70
80
90
100

again elected to Parliament. The Tory majority in the House of Commons expelled him, and, on his being again elected, his seat was given to his opponent who had polled but a few votes. Wilkes became a popular hero; again and again he was elected. At last, in 1774, he was allowed to take his seat; by his determination, Wilkes had vindicated the right of every constituency to return, without any interference whatever, the member of its choice.

In the meantime, while an alderman of London, Wilkes championed the cause of certain printers who had been arrested for publishing the debates that took place in the House of Commons. This privilege had always been denied, but Wilkes supported the offending printers so vigorously that the House, not caring to enter into another contest with him, did not insist on punishing them. Since that time newspapers have been allowed without question to publish such reports.

232. **The American Revolution.**—The first difficulty of George's reign was with the British colonies in North America, south of Canada. These colonies, now thirteen in number, had increased rapidly in wealth and in population; in fact, at this time their population was about one-half as great as that of England. Great Britain, like other European countries, looked upon a colony, not as part of herself, but simply as a community forming a convenient market for the products and manufactures of the parent state. The American colonies enjoyed a large measure of freedom, but their trade was hampered by many vexatious regulations. For instance, they were obliged to sell their produce in Great Britain and to buy from her all their imports; they were not allowed to send a ship to the West Indies or even to Ireland, nor might they send wool from one colony to another. These laws, however, were not strictly enforced, and a smuggling trade with the West Indies and with the Spanish colonies was carried on almost openly.

At the end of the Seven Years' War, Great Britain found herself loaded with a huge debt of £140,000,000. A great deal of this enormous sum had been spent on behalf of

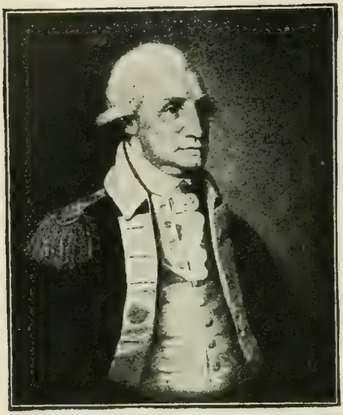
America, and British statesmen now began to feel that the American colonies should relieve the mother country of a portion of the expense of government. It is true that the colonies had themselves suffered severely during the war; they had raised twenty thousand troops and had incurred large debts in defending their own borders. It was still necessary, however, to maintain an army of at least ten thousand men in America, and Lord George Grenville, who succeeded Lord Bute as prime minister in 1763, made up his mind that the colonies should bear the cost of these troops. Accordingly, in 1764, he gave notice in the House of Commons that it was "just and necessary" that a tax be laid on the colonies. The following year saw the passage of the "Stamp Act," which required a stamp issued by the British government to be placed on all legal documents issued within the colonies.

In the colonies a storm of opposition met the enforcement of the Stamp Act. Boxes of stamps sent from England were seized and destroyed; the colonial Legislatures even went so far as to issue proclamations authorizing the people to refuse to obey the Act. The colonists held that the British government had no right to impose a tax on them, as they had no representatives in the British Parliament, and taxation without representation was not in accordance with the law of England. Finally, the government, in 1766, repealed the Act, although, along with the repeal, went a declaration that Great Britain had a right to tax the colonies.

In the very next year the British government again imposed a tax on the colonies, in the shape of a duty, to be collected at American ports, on glass, paints, paper, and tea, the money so raised to be used to pay the salaries of judges and government officials. At the same time it was resolved to enforce vigorously the laws regarding colonial trade and to put a stop to the smuggling with the Spanish colonies and the West Indies. The new taxes aroused even more bitter opposition than that against the Stamp Act. The British government was compelled to suspend the charter of the colony of New York, and even to send two regiments to preserve order in Boston. In 1770 an unfortunate clash in Boston between the soldiers and the populace, known as the "Boston Massacre," brought the colonists to the verge of rebellion. It is probable that war would have broken out had not Lord North, just at this time, carried through Parliament an Act repealing all the taxes except that on tea, this particular tax being retained merely to assert the right of taxation. This made peace for a time, but the colonists were determined not to submit to taxation of any kind. Although tea was sold cheaper than that which was smuggled from Holland, the colonists refused to buy it. In Charleston it was stored in damp cellars and soon spoiled. In Boston some men disguised themselves as Indians and dropped it overboard. This high-handed action gave George, who had strongly supported his ministers in the imposition of the taxes, the very opportunity for which he had been looking. Very stringent laws were passed interfering with the liberty of the people, and General Gage was appointed governor of Massachusetts to see that they were carried out. So far there had not been much union among the colonies, but at this they were all thoroughly aroused, as they felt that the mother country was not only treating them with injustice, but was intentionally trying to work them injury.

Lord North

The course taken by the king met with vigorous opposition, not only in America but in Britain as well. The merchants of London and Bristol urged the government to yield to the wishes of the colonists, and William Pitt, who had now become Earl of Chatham, rose in the House of Lords and pleaded for the withdrawal of the troops and for the repeal of the hostile Acts of Parliament; this alone, he said, could save the colonies to England. The question was put whether the English troops should be removed from the colonies. Even the king's younger brother voted for the removal; but a large majority, "the king's friends," were in favour of keeping them where they were. This was in January, 1775, and in April the war broke out.


George Washington

The first encounter took place at Lexington, near Boston, where a party of regular soldiers, sent to seize some military stores, were encountered by a band of militiamen hastily summoned by news of the expedition. This was the call to arms, and in a short time an army of twenty thousand colonists had gathered around Boston. In the same year the battle of Bunker Hill showed the king that the colonists, although defeated in the fight, were in earnest in their intention to resist his measures even by force of arms. Shortly afterwards the various colonies united their forces and appointed George Washington of Virginia to the position of commander-in-chief.

In the next year the colonists determined to separate from Great Britain. A congress, composed of delegates from the thirteen colonies, was held at Philadelphia, and on July 4th, 1776, the Declaration of Independence was adopted. This completed the separation of the colonies from the motherland, and committed them to a bitter contest.

The first step in the war was an invasion of Canada, but this proved a complete failure. In the next year the British arms suffered a severe reverse in the surrender of General Burgoyne at Saratoga. This was the turning-point of the struggle, although in the next year, at Valley Forge, the army of the colonists had to endure the most terrible sufferings. France then recognized the cause of the colonists and sent a force to their assistance, while the French navy rendered great service in preventing the landing of troops and supplies for the British. The leading men in England began to realize the hopeless nature of the struggle against the desperate determination of the colonists, supported as they now were by France, and with the moral support of Spain and Holland. But the king was still obstinate and determined not to yield; even Lord North urged concessions, but in vain. Finally, in 1781, Lord Cornwallis was hemmed in at Yorktown between the army of Washington and the French fleet, and was compelled to surrender. This defeat convinced even the king, and terms of peace were arranged. The second treaty of Paris, in 1783, closed the war by recognizing the independence of the colonies.

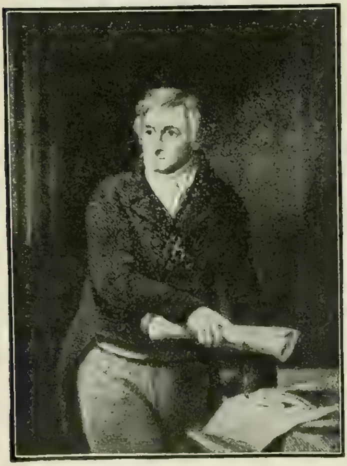
While the war was being carried on in America, Great Britain was engaged in a conflict with France and Spain in other parts of the world. Gibraltar was besieged for three years by the combined fleets of these two countries, but without success. In 1782 Admiral Rodney won a magnificent victory, known as the "Battle of the Saints," over the French fleet in the West Indies. The second treaty of Paris put an end also to the war with France and Spain.

233. **The Gordon Riots.**—Not only, at this time, were there difficulties abroad, but there was also trouble at home. In 1778 Parliament had passed an Act abolishing some of the most oppressive statutes against the Roman Catholics. There was a great deal of unreasoning opposition to this measure, and in 1780 Lord George Gordon, a fanatical Scotsman, accompanied by a mob of sixty thousand men, marched to Westminster to present to Parliament a petition for the repeal of the Act. A terrible riot followed, lasting six days, during which many Roman Catholic churches were pulled down, the prisons burned, and the houses of judges and magistrates destroyed. Before the riot was quelled by the aid of the military, nearly five hundred persons had been killed or wounded. Lord George Gordon was arrested and tried, but was acquit-

ted on the ground that he had no evil intentions, and was not responsible for the actions of his followers.

234. **A free Parliament for Ireland.**—Ireland, too, was causing a great deal of anxiety to the British government. There was in Ireland a Parliament, but it scarcely deserved the name, as only those who were Protestants had the right to vote at the election of members, and no Act passed by it could become law except with the consent of the British government. In addition, Great Britain had control over commerce and navigation, and regulated Irish trade as jealously as it had tried to regulate that of the American colonies. As a result, the Irish people as a whole were bitterly dissatisfied with their condition.

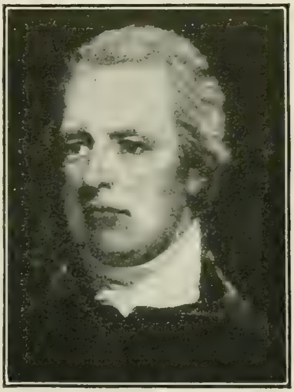
During the war with France and Spain, the coasts of Ireland were ravaged by privateers and the country itself was threatened with invasion. To defend their homes the Protestants took up arms and soon over forty thousand volunteers were enrolled. The Roman Catholics at first did not take an active part in the movement, as they were not allowed to bear arms, but they too joined at last. These volunteers, while loyal to the crown, adopted a distinctly national policy; their influence soon made itself felt. In 1780 the British government removed many of the restrictions on Irish trade, permitted the export of wool from Ireland, and threw open to the Irish merchants the trade with the colonies. But this did not satisfy the volunteers, who by this time numbered nearly one hundred thousand armed and disciplined men. Led by Henry Grattan, they demanded a free Parliament for Ireland. The British government felt that to oppose the



HENRY GRATTAN

Irish at this juncture might result in a civil war, and accordingly, in 1782, the ancient laws giving the British government control over the Irish Parliament were repealed. Ireland thus became almost an independent state. As, however, Roman Catholics could not become members of the Parliament, and the lord-lieutenant was responsible only to the crown, the measure of freedom granted was not as great as it seemed.

235. **William Pitt, the younger.**—The general dissatisfaction of the nation with the conduct of the American war, and the determination of the king not to yield to the colonists, had, in 1782, forced the resignation of Lord North. Several ministers succeeded him, but no one man seemed to be strong enough to carry on the government, until at last the king called upon William Pitt, the second son of the "Great Commoner." Pitt had entered Parliament in 1780, and was but twenty-four years of age when he became prime minister. The king chose him and retained him in office, not so much because he liked Pitt as because he disliked Pitt's opponents. The young prime minister soon had a large majority to support him, and at once entered upon a policy of reform and economy, which resulted in great prosperity to England. He lowered both the export and the import duties on many articles, and in this way put a stop to much of the smuggling, thereby increasing the revenue of the country. He did not succeed in bringing about free trade with Ireland, owing to the opposition of the Irish Parliament, but he was successful in improving trade relations with France. He tried to abolish slavery, but in this was unsuccessful, as he was also in his attempt to reform abuses in parliamentary representation; the country was not yet ready for either of these two great

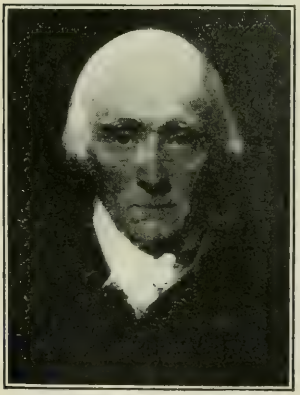


William Pitt

reforms. During the years that Pitt was in power, Great Britain was prosperous and happy, and until the outbreak of the French war, a very bright future seemed to be in store for the country.

236. **British rule in India.**—India also, during this time, received much attention from the British government. The powers of administration were so divided between the East India Company and the native princes that a strong and just rule was impossible. The servants of the company had every opportunity to gather enormous wealth by plundering and oppressing the people, and also by private trading. Clive, who returned to India in 1765, tried to put a stop to these practices. He succeeded in inducing Lord North to pass a Regulating Act which provided for the appointment by the crown of a governor-general and a Council, and the supervision by the home government of all the acts of the company.

The first governor-general appointed was Warren Hastings, at that time the head of the company's affairs in Bengal. He was intrusted with the task of introducing the new plan of reform, but found great difficulty in carrying out his instructions. He was thwarted by his fellow-members of the Council, and was in constant trouble with the natives. When the news of Great Britain's losses in America reached India, Hastings had to make desperate efforts to retain the power and influence of the East India Company. The French were again active against British rule, and, through their agents, were stirring up the native princes to revolt. Hastings was in sore need of funds to meet these difficulties, and to pay the large profits expected by the company. In the effort to uphold at any cost the rule of Great Britain, he extorted large sums



Warren Hastings

from the native rulers, and lent the company's troops for purposes of oppression. In this way, he succeeded not only in maintaining the supremacy of Great Britain, but also in extending her power in all directions in India.

The rapid extension of the empire in the far East induced Pitt to carry through Parliament the India Bill of 1784, which brought the government of India much more directly under the control of the crown. A board of control, consisting of five members, was appointed to supervise the actions of the directors of the East India Company, and of this board the president was a member of the British government. In the next year Hastings resigned his governorship and returned to England.

Hastings had scarcely landed when he was impeached by the House of Commons for extortion, cruelty, and misgovernment in India. Pitt, although sympathizing with the prosecution, refused to take any part in the impeachment proceedings; but Edmund Burke, Richard Brinsley Sheridan, the brilliant Irish orator, and other leading statesmen pressed the charges with untiring energy. Hastings made a magnificent defence, pleading his services in the cause of the empire and the uprightness of his intentions. The trial, which began in 1788 and in which the members of the House of Lords were the judges, lasted for seven years and resulted in the acquittal of Hastings by a unanimous vote. The immediate consequence of the trial was an awakening among the British people of a strong sympathy for the natives of India and the other subject races under the rule of Britain.

237. **Progress in industry.**—At the end of the eighteenth century a large part of the land in England consisted of moorlands and swamps, affording only a scanty pasturage. People began to cut ditches through the wet land and drain it, so that it could be ploughed, planted, and cultivated. A Yorkshire miner, named James Croft, set a good example to farmers by fencing eight acres of moorland, thought to be worthless. But Croft dug out the stones and filled up the holes with soil; he then brought marl and fertilized it, and thus turned it into excellent land. Another farmer named Robert Bakewell learned how to breed cattle and sheep so that he

could get twice as much beef or mutton from a single animal as before. By keeping only the largest and finest animals, he soon had better flocks and herds than any of his neighbours. This process of selection other farmers imitated, until Great Britain came to produce some of the finest breeds of cattle and sheep in the world.

The latter part of the eighteenth century was remarkable also for the many new machines introduced, and for the many new methods applied to manufacturing of all kinds. These inventions made a new Britain. The people were no longer dependent alone on the food raised in their own country, as they could exchange manufactured goods for food and for raw materials.

One of the greatest difficulties in manufacturing was the lack of cheap power. A clumsy kind of engine which consumed great quantities of fuel was in use early in the century, but in 1766 James Watt of Glasgow so improved these engines that in a few years they came into general use. A little later it was discovered that coal could be used to run these engines, and the problem of cheap power was made much simpler. When it was found, also, that coal, instead of charcoal, could be used in the smelting of ore, a further impulse was given to manufacturing in the iron and coal districts of the country.

A century and a half ago each thread of cotton was spun by hand, and each spindle required a spinner. In 1767, James Hargreaves invented a spinning-jenny which enabled a single worker to spin more than one hundred threads at once. Shortly afterwards, Richard Arkwright invented a frame which enabled the spinner to produce a very strong yarn, and this invention was still further improved upon by Samuel Crompton's spinning-mule, which enabled one person to manage a thousand spindles. In 1785, Edmund Cartwright invented a power-loom, and did for weaving what Arkwright had done for spinning. Arkwright had already used a water-wheel to supply the power to run his spinning-frame; Cartwright soon after began the use of a steam engine in working his power-loom.

Up to this time all porcelain and china dishes, except the very coarsest, had been imported from other countries. Now it was discovered that the finest of potteries could be made from the clays of England. Soon after Josiah Wedgwood had established the extensive works that still bear his name, there were twenty thousand potters employed in a single shire.

At the beginning of George's reign, the roads of Britain, with few exceptions, were often impassable, but at the close, the whole kingdom was covered with a network of excellent highways. Part of the credit of building these new roads belongs to a Scotsman, named Macadam, who invented the roadway now called by his name. Formerly it had been impossible to transport coal in wagons over the roads, so it was generally carried in bags slung over the backs of mules. With good roads, and still more by the cutting of numerous canals, the price of coal dropped, so that it was possible to obtain it in any part of the kingdom at a reasonable cost. In this way, also, the great coal and iron deposits could now be brought together. The first canal had been constructed by James Brindley, who was laughed at when he began his work, but who persevered and in the end met with success.

These inventions and improvements brought many evils in their train. Many men were, at first, thrown out of employment; the people herded into the villages and towns; workmen were crowded together in ill-ventilated factories; women and children were employed not only in the factories, but also in the mines. In fact, many of the most troublesome questions with which the government had to deal early in the next century grew out of the industrial development of this period.

238. **Prison reform.**—In the early days of George III, the jails were generally in the most disgraceful state, filthy beyond description, and alive with rats and vermin. Men, women, and children were huddled together in small, damp, sunless rooms. The jailers were paid by fees, and were allowed to practise every cruelty to extort money from the unfortunate prisoners. Even when discharged, a prisoner was often dragged back to jail because he could not pay the

fees demanded by the jailer for board and lodging. A change, however, was brought about, chiefly through the unselfish efforts of John Howard, who devoted himself to improving the condition of the jails and the prisoners. He visited every jail in England and saw for himself the evils that existed. He so roused the people that the government was forced to make improvements. Jailers were paid regular salaries; prisons were inspected and kept clean, and wholesome food was provided for the prisoners.

239. **The struggle with Napoleon.**—All the plans of Pitt for a peaceful expansion of his country were shattered by the outbreak of the French Revolution in 1789. Driven to desperation by the oppression of the king and the nobles, the people of France rose in rebellion against the government, beheaded the king and queen, and established a republic. A little later followed the Reign of Terror, during which blood flowed like water. For the most part, those who suffered were of noble blood, but no one could feel safe. If the slightest suspicion of sympathy for the upper classes fell upon any man or woman, the guillotine brought a speedy death.

At first there was in Great Britain enthusiastic sympathy with the French Revolution. The British people felt that they had obliged their sovereigns to rule justly and for the good of the country, and this is what they thought the French were trying to do. But soon they saw that this was not a struggle for justice, but a wild, mad slaughter. They saw that the watchwords of the revolutionists, "Liberty, equality, fraternity," meant: liberty,—that they might do as they pleased; equality,—that every one should be dragged down to their own level; fraternity—that they and their partisans should oppose all others. France made the mistake of believing that the masses of the British people sympathized with her, and that the king and the nobles were tyrannizing over them. Accordingly, one month after the execution of their king, while the Reign of Terror was at its height, the French declared war against Great Britain.

The leading powers of Europe joined to restore the French monarchy, and France might easily have been defeated had the allies been united and had they been skilfully led. Their armies, however, were in charge of incompetent generals; the soldiers were brave, but they were badly led. The result was that in 1795, Holland, Prussia, and Spain made peace with France, leaving Britain and Austria, with the help of Italy, to continue the war.

Had it not been for the successes of the navy, the British would, up to this time, have met only with defeat. Late in 1793, a French fleet at Toulon surrendered to the combined fleets of Britain and Spain, and a garrison from the fleets took possession of the city. They were, however, soon driven out by the revolutionists, a success on the part of the French due largely to the military genius of a young Corsican officer of artillery named Napoleon Bonaparte. In the next year, Lord Howe defeated the French fleet off the island of Ushant in a battle known as "The Glorious First of June." In this engagement the French lost seven ships and eight thousand men.

Napoleon Bonaparte

In the meantime, the young Corsican officer of artillery had not been idle. For his success at Toulon, he had been raised to the rank of general, and, after holding various important commands, was made general-in-chief of the French army in Italy. In a short time, by the rapidity of his marches and the daring of his movements, he had both Austria and Italy at his mercy. In October, 1797, a peace was concluded between France and Austria, which left Italy in the power of France, and Great Britain without an ally on the continent of Europe.

With Spain and Holland as allies, France was in a position to threaten the sea-power of Britain, whose navy in men, ships and guns, was no match for her three powerful enemies. The British, however, gave the allied navies no time to unite. In 1797, Admiral Sir John Jervis attacked the Spanish off Cape St. Vincent, and won a triumphant victory. But the power of the British navy was for a time crippled by two serious mutinies which broke out among the sailors, the first at Spithead, the second at the Nore. The causes of complaint were brutal treatment of the men by the officers, poor pay, and insufficient food. At one time the whole fleet of Admiral Duncan, who was watching the Dutch, joined the mutineers. With a single ship, the brave old Scotsman blockaded the Dutch fleet for three days, deceiving them by constantly running up signals, as though he were sending messages to his other ships. The mutiny was put down by liberal concessions on the part of the government, and by the hanging of the more outspoken of the leaders. As soon as all his ships had returned to him, Duncan engaged the Dutch fleet off Camperdown.

> "I've taken the depth of a fathom!" he cried,
> "And I'll sink with a right good-will;
> For I know when we're all of us under the tide
> My flag will be fluttering still."

The Dutch fought bravely, but they were in the end defeated, with the loss of eleven ships.

While the British fleet was engaged in winning victories on the sea, a daring scheme had occurred to Napoleon Bonaparte, who was now high in the councils of the French republic. He proposed that he should lead an army into Egypt, conquer that country, and by extending his conquests eastwards, strike a blow at British power in India. His plan was accepted, and, in 1798, with an army of thirty-six thousand men, he set out for Egypt, escaping by the merest chance an encounter with Admiral Nelson, who, in command of a strong British fleet, was watching his every movement He succeeded in landing in Egypt, and in the hotly contested Battle of the Pyramids, gained control of the country.

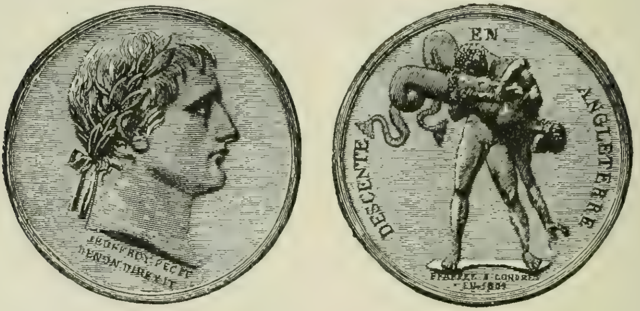
Napoleon had left his fleet anchored in Aboukir Bay, and here it was discovered by Nelson. In the battle that followed, the British admiral gained an overwhelming victory. Thirteen French ships were either taken or sunk; only four ships escaped, and three of these were soon after captured. Napoleon was now cut off from communication with France, but, nothing daunted, he pushed eastwards into Syria, and laid siege to Acre, defended by Sir Sydney Smith and a garrison of British and Turks. Acre held out bravely, and Napoleon was compelled to retreat to Egypt. Soon after, he returned to France, and his army was defeated at Aboukir by Sir Ralph Abercromby. Later the whole French army of thirteen thousand men surrendered to the British.

A coalition, formed in 1798 between Great Britain, Russia, and Austria had not met with success. Both the Russians and the Austrians had suffered so many reverses that the former was persuaded to abandon the alliance, while the latter made peace with France at Luneville in 1801. Once more Britain stood alone.

Lord Nelson

To make matters worse for Britain, in this same year, Pitt, thwarted by the king in his plans for the government of Ireland, resigned his office, and was succeeded by Mr. Addington. Napoleon's plans were soon apparent. By a league of the northern powers, Denmark, Sweden, and Russia, he hoped to ruin Great Britain by shutting out her vessels from these countries, and, by joining the navies of these three countries with those of France and Spain, to drive her from the seas. The agreement called the "Armed Neutrality" was made, and Napoleon instantly called upon the Danes to place their fleet at his disposal. Great Britain had secret information of this plan, and Sir Hyde Parker was sent, in 1801, with Nelson as second in command, to demand the withdrawal of the Danes from the league. This demand was refused, and Parker immediately sent Nelson to enforce the request by the bombardment of Copenhagen. The battle was a desperate one, but the Danes were at last compelled to yield, after nearly all their fleet had been destroyed. Denmark was thus forced to conclude an armistice, which gave the British fleet entrance to the Baltic. A little later, the death of the Czar of Russia broke up the confederation.

This blow, together with the surrender of the French army in Egypt, which took place about this time, made Napoleon willing to conclude a peace. The treaty was signed at Amiens in 1802. Britain retained Ceylon, which had been captured during the war, and agreed to surrender Malta, while France on her part agreed to evacuate Egypt.



Medal struck by Napoleon to commemorate his Proposed Invasion of England

Napoleon, however, had agreed to the treaty of Amiens only that he might have time to build a new navy and to form his plans to strike a crushing blow at Great Britain. He had made himself emperor of the French, and now felt that he was in a position to carry out his cherished scheme of the invasion of England. For this purpose he mustered one hundred and thirty thousand men at Boulogne, "Let us be masters of the Channel for six hours," he said, "and we are masters of the world." The danger to Great Britain was very grave, but Napoleon had not reckoned with the people with whom he had to deal. Addington was forced to resign, and Pitt was again called to the helm. He at once took active measures to guard against the proposed invasion, and to enlist the aid of the European powers.

That the French did not set foot on British soil was due largely to the untiring vigilance of Admiral Lord Nelson. During a period of twenty months he was stationed off Toulon, and during that time he left his ship only three times, and for less than an hour on each occasion. But one stormy night, the French managed to escape, and joining the Spanish fleet, made for the West Indies. This, however, was only a ruse, and as soon as Nelson had been lured into following them, the French and Spanish fleet returned to home waters. But Nelson, not finding them in the West Indies, suspected their design, and hurried back to England, nearly heartbroken at the way in which he had been tricked. In the meantime, the French and Spaniards had arrived at home, had fought a losing battle with a British fleet under Sir Robert Calder, and taken refuge in the harbour of Cadiz.

Some of Nelson's Ships

On October the 21st, 1805, the French and Spanish fleets, numbering thirty-three ships, ventured out of the harbour, and were attacked by Nelson, who had again resumed command, with twenty-seven ships of the line. In less than five hours, the allied fleets were hopelessly shattered off Cape Trafalgar. Just as the fight began Nelson hung out his famous signal, "England expects every man to do his duty." Early in the fight he was struck by a musket ball, and died in the moment of victory, murmuring, "Thank God, I have done my duty."

"Wherever brave deeds are treasured and told,
In the tales of the deeds of yore,
Like jewels of price in a chain of gold
Are the name and the fame he bore.
Wherever the track of our English ships
Lies white on the ocean foam,
His name is sweet to our English lips,
As the names of the flowers at home."

Twenty-four of the enemy's ships surrendered or were destroyed, and twenty thousand prisoners were taken. Napoleon's last hope of supremacy was gone. He might easily replace the ships, the men, and the guns; he could never hope to inspire his seamen with any confidence of success. "England has saved herself by her courage," said Pitt; "she will save Europe by her example."

Even before Trafalgar, Pitt had succeeded in forming another coalition of the European powers against Napoleon. But the French emperor acted with his usual promptness, and, marching with the Boulogne army against the Austrians, crushed their hopes in the battle of Austerlitz. This disaster to his ally so preyed upon Pitt that on January 23rd, 1806, he died, worn out in the service of his country. On his death he was succeeded as foreign secretary by Charles James Fox, but Fox survived his great rival only eight months.

The battle of Jena now placed Prussia under the control of Napoleon, who seized the opportunity to revive his plan for the total ruin of British commerce. From Berlin, decrees were issued declaring a blockade of Britain. All commerce with her was forbidden, and British manufactures, or products from British colonies, were to be confiscated wherever found. The next year, Napoleon so humbled Russia that by the Milan Decrees this "Continental System," as it was called, was made to apply to the whole continent. Britain retaliated by Orders-in-Council, threatening to seize the ships of any nation that traded with France or her allies. As Britain had control of the sea, she was able to injure France more than France injured her. The Berlin and Milan Decrees really helped to ruin Napoleon, because they made goods so dear in Europe that his allies rose against him.

Charles James Fox

Now that Britain had proved her superiority on the seas, George Canning, who had succeeded Fox as foreign secretary, determined that the British army should take part in the struggle. Portugal, in defiance of the Berlin Decrees, had refused to close her ports to Great Britain. Napoleon, in revenge, proposed to Spain that the two countries should divide the territory of the Portuguese, and in furtherance of this plan, a French army occupied Lisbon. But this was only the first step in Napoleon's schemes. Soon after, Spain itself was overrun, the Spanish king was compelled to abdicate, and Joseph Bonaparte was placed on the throne. This high-handed act so angered the Spaniards that they rose in rebellion against the usurper.

Canning felt that the moment had come to strike, and, in 1808, two expeditions were sent to Portugal, the one under Sir Arthur Wellesley, who had already distinguished himself in India, and the other under Sir John Moore. The former was successful, and the French were driven out of

Portugal, but for some reason or other, Wellesley was recalled to England. In the meantime, Sir John Moore had pushed into Spain in a daring attempt to unite with a Spanish army, and destroy the French line of communication. The Spaniards were defeated, and Moore was compelled to retreat to the coast. This he did in a masterly manner, followed by a French army under Marshal Soult. At Corunna he turned and defeated Soult, but was himself killed in the battle. The army embarked and reached England in safety. This severe check did not dismay Canning, and another army was at once sent to Portugal under Wellesley, who succeeded in uniting with the Spanish army, but, being met by an overwhelming French force, was forced to give way. In the same year, a British expedition against Antwerp ended in disaster, and this reverse, coupled with the success of Napoleon in another war with Austria, forced Canning to resign. He was succeeded by the Marquis of Wellesley, a brother of Sir Arthur. The war was continued with greater vigour than ever.

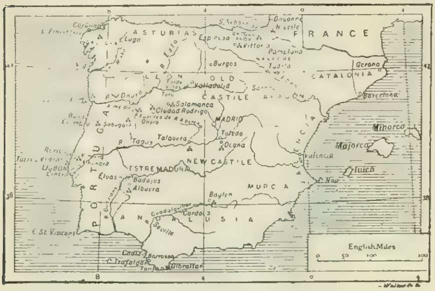
Sir John Moore

For the next four years the interest centres mainly in Wellesley and the struggle in the Spanish peninsula. At first his army was too weak for pitched battles; he could only wear out the French by skilful movements. He would sometimes retreat for days, and then, by a doubling movement, attack the enemy in an exposed quarter. On one occasion he lured a French army nearly to Lisbon, where, in the retreat that followed, twenty-five thousand died of starvation and disease. It was not until 1811, after remaining for many months behind the triple fortifications of Torres Vedras, that he felt himself strong enough to undertake a forward movement. Then he began the march that ended in the expulsion of the French from Spanish territory.

Wellesley now entered upon a series of triumphant victories. In 1812 Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajos were stormed, and a little later the terrible battle of Salamanca was won. Then came the battle of Vittoria and the crossing of the Pyrenees, and, finally, on April 10th, 1814, the decisive battle of Toulouse, which ended in the total defeat of the French forces. In all these battles and sieges, Wellesley had been ably assisted by the Spanish and Portuguese forces, more, however, as guerillas than as disciplined soldiers. For his services in the Peninsular War, Wellesley was created Duke of Wellington and rewarded with a grant of four hundred thousand pounds.

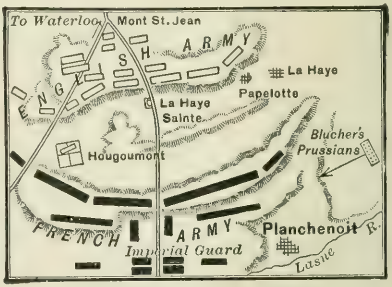
THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON

In the meantime, Napoleon, who had left to his marshals the conduct of the war in the Peninsula, had invaded Russia with an army of over half a million men. The expedition proved a disastrous failure; all but a few thousands of his immense army perished miserably. The emperor was now at the mercy of his enemies. Wellington had, by this time, crossed the Pyrenees, and was marching northwards. The Russians and Prussians had crossed the Rhine and were advancing on Paris. Napoleon resisted desperately, but was forced to surrender. He was sent to Elba, a small island in the Mediterranean not far from the coast of France, and a younger brother of Louis XVI was placed on the French throne.



The Peninsular War

In a very short time Napoleon escaped from Elba and made his way towards Paris. His old soldiers flocked around him with the greatest enthusiasm and he soon had an army of two hundred and fifty thousand men. But the allies were now thoroughly aroused by the danger that threatened them. In a short time they had a million soldiers ready to pour over the French frontier and crush all opposition. Napoleon, however, did not mean to allow them to unite their forces. The British and Prussians had armies in Belgium under Wellington and Blücher. Napoleon suddenly crossed the French frontier and attacked Blücher at Ligny, driving him back twenty miles. At the same time Wellington, at the head of a British and Belgian army, was attacked by Marshal Ney at Quatre Bras. Wellington was compelled to retreat to the village of Waterloo, nine miles from Brussels, where he took up his stand. There on Sunday, June 18th, 1815, he was attacked by Napoleon. Wellington had drawn up his army in squares along a highway, the approach being defended by two strong posts on the right and left of his lines. The two armies were of nearly the same size, seventy thousand men each, but the French had veteran troops and more guns. All day the French beat upon the British squares, which stubbornly held their ground. To-



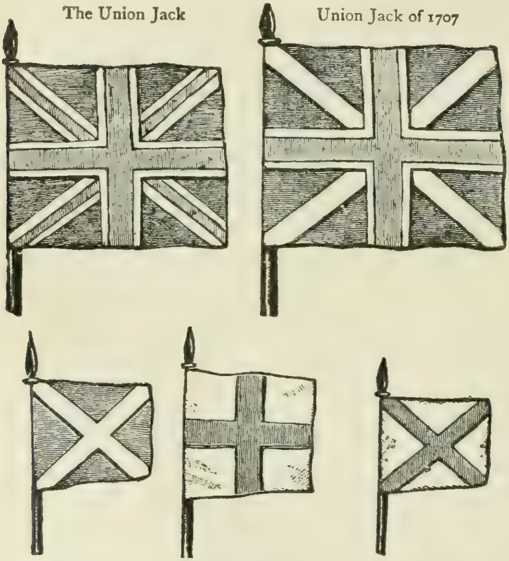
The Battle of Waterloo

wards night, Blücher's Prussian army arrived on the field and struck the French flank. The French fire weakened, and the whole British army moved forwards and drove the French in utter rout from the field. Each army lost about twenty-five thousand men. It was Napoleon's last battle. He gave himself up, and was exiled to the distant island of St. Helena, where he died in 1821. The peace of Vienna, which brought the war to a close, gave Malta, the Mauritius Islands, and the Cape of Good Hope to Great Britain.

240. **The War of 1812-1814.**—During the last ten years of his reign, George III was insane and blind, and his son ruled, as regent, in his place. Just after the trouble came upon him, war broke out with the United States. The blockade caused by the Berlin Decrees and the British Orders-in-Council, had shut out the United States ships from the European trade, and as this had been very profitable, a great deal of resentment was aroused. In addition, Great Britain had exercised a shadowy right to seize and search vessels of any other nation for deserters from her own navy. The United States claimed that many citizens of that country had been forcibly taken from their own vessels, and compelled to serve in the British navy. Seizing the opportunity when the resources of Great Britain were taxed to the utmost in the conflict with Napoleon, the United States declared war, and at once invaded Canada. The invasion of Canada proved a failure; in three successive campaigns the American troops were signally defeated. British troops also burned Washington, but were repulsed at New Orleans. On the sea for a time the navy of England was worsted, but towards the end of the war, the commerce of the United States was practically ruined, and most of her ports were in a state of blockade. In 1814 the surrender of Napoleon gave Great Britain a chance to turn her energies to America, and before the end of the year peace was signed at Ghent. The treaty contained no reference to any of the alleged causes of the conflict.

241. **The union of Great Britain and Ireland.**—At the beginning of the nineteenth century, a great change in the government of Ireland was brought about by Pitt. The Act

of 1782, granting a free Parliament, made very little improvement in the condition of the country. Some relief was afforded by the Catholic Relief Act, passed in 1793, which allowed Roman Catholics to act as magistrates and jurors and to vote for members of Parliament, but the plotting soon broke out again. A society known as the "United Irishmen" was formed by Hamilton Rowan and Wolf Tone, with the object of separating Ireland from Great Britain. Arrangements were made with France to send a strong army to assist in setting up a republic in Ireland. On one occasion a French force actually reached the coast, but the ships were scattered by a storm, and the rising was easily crushed. Later, in 1798, a French force landed, and a rebellion took place, which was not quelled without frightful cruelties committed by both sides. It was evident that something must be done to restore peace and prosperity to the country.


The Union Jack
Union Jack of 1707
Scottish Flag
English Flag
Irish Flag

THE FLAG OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND

Pitt now proposed to abolish the Irish Parliament, and to unite Ireland with Great Britain, the Irish having representation at Westminster in the same way that the English and the Scots had. In order to carry out this plan, he was forced to resort to bribery and other questionable means before the Irish Parliament would give its consent to the union. Finally, in spite of the opposition of Grattan, the Act of Union was passed in 1800 and went into force on January 1st, 1801. By its terms one hundred commoners and thirty-two peers were given seats in the British Parliament. There was to be absolute free trade between the two countries, and the flag of St. Patrick was to be added to the Union Jack. The united countries were henceforth to be known as Great Britain and Ireland. Pitt had promised, as soon as the union was carried out, to repeal the penal laws against the Roman Catholics; but this promise, owing to the refusal of the king to agree, he was unable to carry out. Indeed, it was the opposition of the king to this act of justice that led to Pitt's resignation of the premiership in 1801.

242. **Social unrest.**—Great Britain had been at war almost continually from 1775 to 1815, and now that the country was at peace, the suffering caused by the wars began to receive attention. The national debt was more than six times as great as at the beginning of the wars, the interest alone amounting to one hundred and sixty million dollars a year. To raise this amount and to meet the expenses of government, taxes were very heavy. Nearly everything that people used in daily life was taxed. Hundreds of men were ruined by the heavy taxes, or by the effect of the wars on their business. Banks and factories were closed, and thousands of people were out of work.

In 1815 a law was passed by which no grain was allowed to be brought into England until the price reached ten shillings a bushel. The next year there was a bad harvest, the price of grain rose, many people could not get food, and riots broke out all over the country, accompanied by destruction of property and the stoppage of business.

Another cause of distress was the rapid introduction of machinery, which threw many thousands of men out of employment. The people thought that the new machines were the reason for all the trouble. Night attacks were made upon the factories, and many machines were destroyed. This led to riots, conflicts with the officers of the law, and the stoppage of useful work.

The criminal laws were still enforced in the old harsh way. They were more brutal than those of any civilized country in Europe; the statutes laid down more than two hundred offences for which the penalty was hanging. Men and women were tied behind carts and publicly whipped through the streets. Because the penalties were so severe, juries often refused to make convictions, and crime went unpunished. The constables were frequently ready to let criminals off for a bribe, and in many cases they actually encouraged criminals in order to secure the rewards that the government paid for catching them.

Parliament was still controlled by the nobility and the land-owners; the working classes had no representatives, and began to demand reform. They thought that many of their troubles could be cured, if they were allowed to have some share in the government.

243. **Literature.**—In a reign so long as that of George III, there was opportunity for changes in literature as well as in manufacturing. Samuel Johnson was the man who exerted most influence over the literary world of his day. He wrote biography, criticism, essays, and a story called "Rasselas," but his great work was the compilation of an English dictionary, the first of any real value. His friend Oliver Goldsmith, also, wrote a novel, the "Vicar of Wakefield," a readable story about real men and women, which is written with a charming simplicity and humour. Goldsmith wrote poetry as well as prose, and his "Deserted Village" is as delightful as the "Vicar." Edmund Burke, the great political orator of this period, must also be remembered as an eloquent writer, and the

Robert Burns

master of a prose style that has scarcely been surpassed in majestic elevation.

Novels of home life still continued to be written, but there was also much writing of poetry before and after the year 1800. The imagination of men of literary ability seems to have been excited by the revolutions and the new thoughts of the latter part of the eighteenth century, just as it had been by the great events of the reign of Elizabeth, and some of the poetry that was written has the freshness and ease of the Elizabethan days.

In Scotland, the writings of Robert Burns, with their beauty and pathos and humour, sound the keynote of the newly arisen interest in people because they were people, and not because they were rich or educated or of high rank. A little later Walter Scott wrote poems that have almost the ring of the old ballads. Then he wrote the first historical novels; these, too, are in sympathy with the new feeling; for in his stories it is not so often the lords and ladies as the cottagers and the men of low degree that arouse our warmest interest. Wordsworth came with his love of nature and his conviction that writing poetry was not an amusement but a serious business. Charles Lamb showed people the beauties of the old, half-forgotten dramatists, and wrote his "Essays of Elia" with their unequalled geniality, pathos, and humour. At the end of the reign of George III, the literature of the nineteenth century was well begun with freshness, brightness, humour, appreciation of the old, readiness for the new, and a rapidly developing feeling of sympathy for whatever is human.

Sir Walter Scott

244. **Last days of George III.**—George III had been a determined opponent of every kind of reform. He steadily refused any concessions to the Roman Catholics, and kept

control of Parliament by grants of office or money to members, quite as shamelessly as Walpole had done, and even more openly. But yet the people of Britain had a great love for their old king, because they knew him to be sincere. They no longer remembered his early acts of tyranny; they felt only pity for the old man who had gone among them so freely, chatting familiarly with all, and who now spent his time walking aimlessly from room to room in his palace.

SUMMARY

The reign of George III, the longest in British history except that of Queen Victoria, was marked by a series of wars. First came the American Revolution, by which Great Britain lost thirteen colonies in America. Then came riots in Ireland, led by those who wished Ireland to be an independant kingdom; and France, fresh from her own revolution, was ready to help the Irish. William Pitt brought about the union of Ireland with Great Britain. France declared war, but the supremacy of the British navy under Nelson freed Great Britain from all danger of French invasion. The war went on for twenty years, ending with Wellington's defeat of Napoleon at Waterloo. Great Britain had also been at war with the United States a second time. Many inventions came into use in this reign and many useful reforms were made.

4. George IV. 1820–1830

245. **George IV becomes king.**—When George IV came to the throne, in 1820, there was no enthusiasm. He had really been the ruler of Great Britain for ten years. For that length of time his father had been hopelessly insane, and he had acted as regent of the kingdom. He was reckless and profligate. More than once Parliament paid his enormous debts, but he began to contract new ones as soon as the old had been settled. Though a man of ability and able at times to show a certain charm of manner, he preferred the company of buffoons and prize-fighters to that of scholars and statesmen; he neglected and ill-used his wife; he was mean and untruthful. He was not a king of whom Britons could be proud.

246. **Social unrest continues.**—The social unrest of the time found expression in a conspiracy to murder the members

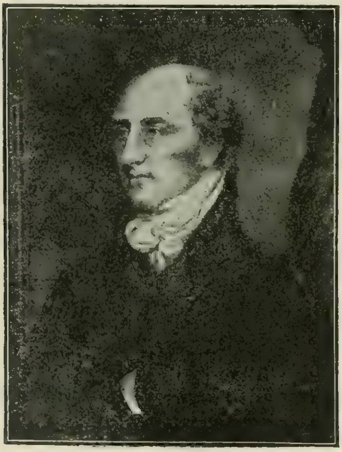
of the Cabinet, shortly after George IV came to the throne. The vast number of unemployed in the manufacturing centres were accustomed to hold meetings to consider their grievances, and at one of these meetings held at Manchester in 1819, the magistrates, fearing a riot, ordered a body of cavlary to charge through a dense throng of men, women and children; they cut them down with their swords, killing or wounding nearly a hundred. Fearful of the discontent of the people, Parliament passed severe laws to prevent such meetings. The people thought they were ill-used, and a dozen or more desperate men planned what is known as the "Cato Street Conspiracy." They were, however, betrayed by one of their own number, and five of them were executed.

George IV

After the excitement over this conspiracy had died away, Parliament at last changed the criminal laws so that a hundred or more offences, which before had been punished by hanging, were now punished by fine or imprisonment. To this work Sir Samuel Romilly had devoted his life, but he died before he saw the results of his labours.

Parliament also, under the guidance of William Huskisson, lowered the duties on wool and silk, so that manufacturers could get material to keep their factories in operation. Huskisson further succeeded in inducing Parliament to make such changes in the Navigation Acts as allowed the ships of any nation to share in the carrying trade of Great Britain, provided that a similar privilege was allowed by that nation to British ships. Machine smashing, however, still kept up. In 1826 every power-loom in the town of Blackburn was broken by a mob of men, who ignorantly thought the machines the cause of their misery. It was some years before the general prosperity of the country put a stop to these outrages.

247. **George Canning.**—The French Revolution and the wars with Napoleon so frightened the European monarchs, that after the battle of Waterloo they leagued together to crush out any attempt that might be made by their subjects to secure more freedom. Although Britain did not join this "Holy Alliance," as it was called, still the people thought that the foreign secretary, Lord Castlereagh, was in sympathy with its aims. In 1822 Castlereagh committed suicide and was succeeded by Canning, whose sympathies had always been with the oppressed. Canning took an active part in the attempt of the Greeks to obtain their independence, and in 1827 was successful in inducing France and Russia to join in an agreement to settle the question. Later in the year, Sir Edward Codrington, at the head of the combined fleets of the three allied nations, completely destroyed the Turkish and Egyptian fleets at the battle of Navarino. The result of this battle was that Turkey acknowledged the independence of Greece. Canning also saved Portugal from an attack by Spain, and encouraged Mexico and the South American states to persevere in their struggle to throw off the yoke of the Spaniards. One of his dearest projects was the granting of more civil liberty to Roman Catholics, but he was unable to carry out his wishes. He became premier in 1827, but died before he had an opportunity to put his many enlightened ideas into operation.


George Canning

248. **The Catholic Relief Bill, 1829.**—Both Pitt and Canning had wished to give the utmost civil liberty to Roman

Catholics, but they had been thwarted in their efforts by the opposition of George III. In 1817, however, several concessions were made by which Roman Catholics were allowed to enter the army and navy, and to vote for members of the House of Commons. In 1828 the Test Act and other Acts were repealed in so far as they excluded dissenters from holding office under the government. These Acts had remained on the statute books since the time of Charles II, although, as far as dissenters were concerned, they had generally been disregarded, an Indemnity Act being passed each year for the purpose of relieving those who had been guilty of a breach of the laws.

Daniel O'Connell

In 1823 an organization known as the "Catholic Association" was formed in Ireland by Daniel O'Connell and Richard Lalor Sheil with the object of securing for Roman Catholics the right to sit in Parliament. This association soon became very powerful, and exercised a vast influence in the country. Five years later, O'Connell, who was looked upon as the leader of his fellow-religionists, offered himself as a candidate for election to the House of Commons and was triumphantly returned. It was impossible for him, as a Roman Catholic, to take the oath required from members of Parliament, but he demanded that he be allowed to take his seat. Ireland was in a ferment. The Duke of Wellington, who was at this time prime minister, with Sir Robert Peel as leader of the House of Commons, feared that if O'Connell were not admitted to Parliament, the Irish would rise in rebellion. He knew what war meant, and, strongly supported by Peel, he resolved not to oppose the demands of O'Connell. Accordingly, in 1829, the Catholic Relief Bill was passed, and received, after some opposition, the assent of the king. At last it was possible for a Roman Catholic to have a voice in making the laws for his country. All political offices except that of the throne, the regency, the lord chancellorship and the lord lieutenancy of Ireland were, from this time, open to Roman Catholics.

249. **Death of George IV.**—King George died in the summer of 1830, little regretted by the British nation. He had squandered millions of the people's money and had stood in the way of every reform.

SUMMARY

The social unrest of the country still continued, although many changes for the better were made. The criminal laws became less severe and the trade of the country was increased by wise legislation. The Catholic Relief Bill was passed in 1829.

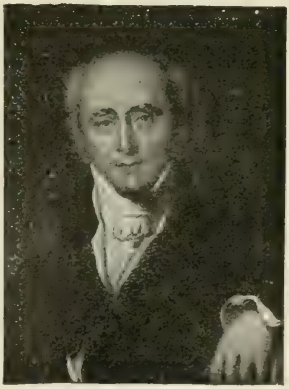
5. William IV. 1830–1837

250. **The "Sailor King."**—William was a bluff, hearty old man of sixty-five when he began to reign. His life had been spent in the navy, so that the people gave him the name of the "Sailor King." He was a friend of the people, and throughout his reign used his best efforts on their behalf.

William IV

251. **Reforms in electing members of Parliament.** — Reforms and inventions, and not wars, make up the history of William's reign. The first reform was in the method of electing members of Parliament. In the time of Henry III, two knights represented each shire, or country. Later, representatives were sent from some of the towns, or boroughs. Which towns

should be selected seems to have depended either upon the choice of the king or upon the willingness of the town to meet the necessary expense. It gradually became an established custom that these towns and no others should be represented in Parliament. As time passed, a borough which had no right of representation sometimes became the home of large numbers of people; while in another, which chanced to have no manufactories, the number of inhabitants had often become exceedingly small. It is said that in the year of William's coronation, a certain one of these boroughs was left without a single inhabitant, and the man that owned the land quietly selected his two members and sent them to Parliament to represent himself. Boroughs such as this and others equally depopulated were known as "rotten boroughs." Even this was better than the other side of the matter, for it was not quite so bad to have two men represent one person as to have many large cities entirely without representation, simply because the land on which they were built did not have any inhabitants in the olden times. Further, the right to vote was, in the country, confined to land-owners. A tenant might pay a yearly rental of one thousand pounds, and own dozens of cattle, and yet have no vote. In towns, there was no general law, but, as a rule, few people had votes. The majority of the House of Commons was elected by less than fifteen thousand persons.



Earl Grey

Reform had been talked of for half a century. Pitt had plans to reform the Commons when he first took office, but the Napoleonic wars had given British statesmen other things to think of, and had created in the minds of the upper classes a fear that the people, if given political power, might use it to work a revolution. In 1831 the government of Earl Grey submitted a Reform Bill, but the Tories offered such opposition that the Parliament was dissolved. The new election gave Earl Grey a large majority, and the bill passed the Commons, only to be thrown out by the Lords. Again, in 1832, the Commons passed the bill, and again the Lords threw it out. Excitement ran high. Riots occurred, and in some places lives were lost. Earl Grey resigned, but when the Tories were unable to form a government, he took office again, upon the king's giving a pledge that, if necessary, he would create enough new peers to carry the bill in the Lords. A quiet hint from the king was taken by the leading members of the House of Lords, and the bill became law.

Fifty-six boroughs lost the right to send any members. Thirty others were to return one member each instead of two. The right of representation was given for the first time to many populous towns, and additional members were given to several counties. The franchise, or right to vote, was extended to tenants in counties paying £50 a year, and to tenants in towns paying £10 a year. Before the Reform Bill, the political power rested wholly with the nobility, clergy, and land-owners; after the Reform Bill, the great middle class, including tenant-farmers, professional men, skilled artisans, and tradesmen, were given a share in the government of the country.

WILLIAM WILBERFORCE

252. **Social reforms.**—During the latter part of the eighteenth century, the slave trade began to receive attention. Its horrors were brought vividly before the people in a book written by Thomas Clarkson, in which it was pointed out that more than fifty thousand negroes were seized in Africa every year, and carried off to be sold in America. They were crowded into ships, chained and packed away on shelves like merchandise. A bill to prohibit the slave trade was passed three times by the House of Commons, but each

time it was rejected by the House of Lords. Finally, in 1807, the bill was passed, but it did not set free those who were already slaves; it merely made the slave trade illegal in British dominions. But men like William Wilberforce, Zachary Macaulay and others, who had devoted their lives to the freeing of slaves, kept up the agitation, and in 1833 a bill was passed through both Houses of Parliament setting free all slaves under the British flag. Twenty million pounds were granted as compensation to the planters, and the blot of slavery disappeared from the British Empire.

One of the evils resulting from the rapid developing of the manufacturing industries was the employment of women and children in the mines and factories. They were frequently, in the mines, forced to do work fit only for strong men. Children of six were habitually employed, and their hours of labour were fourteen to sixteen daily. In the factories the work was not so hard, but the hours were equally long. Ernest men, who were striving for the good of the people, saw the evils to which this condition of affairs was leading, and put forth their utmost efforts to stop the abuses. The Earl of Shaftesbury was the leader of the movement. Various Acts were passed, each of which helped to better the condition of the women and children, but it was not until 1833 that the earl succeeded in having the employment of children limited to half time, the other half being devoted to school. Other bills, passed early in the next reign, still further decreased the working hours of children, prohibited the employment of women in mines, and limited their labour in factories to twelve hours a day.

An important change was made at this time in the poor laws. England was overrun with paupers and vagrants. The old laws had encouraged pauperism by giving too much help. The labourers had lost all independence, and came to think it no disgrace to receive aid from the poor-rates. In some counties, three-quarters of the country people were rated as paupers, so that the taxes for the poor-rate rose in 1832 to seven million pounds. In 1834 an Act was passed confining aid to the aged and infirm; all others claiming charity were sent to the parish workhouse.

The result was an enormous decrease in pauperism, and a very large decrease in the taxation.

At this time, also, the government began to take an interest in the education of the people. In 1833 only one in eleven of the children of the kingdom was in attendance at school. Much had been accomplished by private effort, but now the government took up the question seriously. As the result of a committee of enquiry, the sum of £20,000 was voted by the House of Commons for the education of the people. This was a small sum for such an important object, but it was at least a beginning.

Another great reform was in giving the right to a man accused of a crime to employ a lawyer to defend him, and to present his case to the jury. If a man was charged with a crime, the government employed a lawyer to bring up every circumstance that would tell against him, but the man himself had not this privilege. He might speak in his own behalf, but very few accused men would be likely to understand the intricacies of the law, and there must have been multitudes who were imprisoned or even executed, not because they were wicked but because they were ignorant. Now, for the first time, an accused man was allowed to have a lawyer to plead for him and to bring up every circumstance that would tell in his favour.

The condition of the workers in the mines of Great Britain was greatly bettered by the invention of the safety-lamp by Sir Humphrey Davy. Davy found that when the miner's lamp was surrounded by a wire netting it would not ignite the gases that accumulate in the mine. This discovery has saved thousands of lives.

253. **Great inventions.**—Although railways, built by George Stephenson, were in operation in England in 1825, it was not until 1830 that he constructed his steam-engine, the "Rocket," which proved capable of travelling thirty-five miles an hour. There was, at first, great opposition, both in Parliament and among the people, to the building of railways. A report on the railroad plan, read in the House of Commons, ended like this: "As for those who speculate on making railways take the place of canals, wagons, stage-

coaches, and post-chaises, throughout the kingdom, we deem them and their visionary schemes unworthy of notice. It is a gross exaggeration to say that a locomotive could be made to go fifteen miles an hour, and even if it should, the danger of bursting boilers and broken wheels would be so great that the people would suffer themselves to be fired off on a rocket about as soon as they would trust themselves on a machine going at such a rate of speed." But the bill allowing the railroad to be built passed, and Stephenson's new locomotive, the "Rocket," was found to be able to go at the rate of thirty-five miles an hour without hurting any one. In the ten years after 1830, more than two thousand miles of road were built and equipped in England alone.

During this reign also the first iron ship was built and the first friction match invented. A company was also formed in London for the purpose of manufacturing from coal illuminating-gas to light the streets of the city.

254. **Separation of Hanover and Great Britain.**—William had passed his three score and ten years, and died in 1837. Up to this time, the kings of Great Britain had been rulers of Hanover also. But by the law of Hanover, only males could succeed to the throne; therefore, when William's niece, Victoria, became queen of England, his younger brother, the Duke of Cumberland, became king of Hanover, thus separating the two countries.

SUMMARY

The reign of the "Sailor King" was noted chiefly for its reforms. The principal ones were the extension of the franchise, the abolition of the "rotten boroughs," of some of the worst features of child-labour, and of slavery in the colonies. Men accused of crime were then, for the first time, allowed to have the aid of a lawyer. The general character of these reforms indicated a gain in public sympathy for those that needed help. Railways began to be built about this time.

6. VICTORIA. 1837–1901

255. **Early life and marriage.**—When Victoria was yet a little girl, it was almost certain that she would become

queen of Great Britain. Her father, Edward, Duke of Kent, the third son of George III, died when she was a few months old, and her mother wisely determined that her daughter should see very little of court life. So long as was possible, her prospect of a crown was kept secret from her; but her whole training, under her mother's careful guidance, was conducted with the object of fitting her for the position she would be called on to fill. The death of William IV found Victoria a girl of eighteen, highly accomplished for one so young, and with fixed habits of punctuality, order, and economy.

Queen Victoria

Three years after her accession, Victoria married her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, better known as the Prince Consort, the title conferred on him by the British Parliament. The marriage was especially pleasing to the personal friends of the queen, although many of her subjects felt a vague fear that his influence might prove harmful to the country. These fears, however, were groundless. From his marriage to his death in 1861, the Prince Consort devoted himself to the good of his adopted land. The great Exhibition of 1851 was suggested and planned by him. His interest in art and in education was an unfailing inspiration and stimulus to the people of England.

256. **"Penny Postage" established.**—At the beginning of Victoria's reign the postage on a letter was so great that poor

people were unable to send letters at all, and even those who could afford to pay the heavy charges wrote as seldom as possible. It cost a shilling to carry a letter from London to Edinburgh, and it was said that if an Irish labourer working in England wished to write to his family at home, it would take one-fifth of his weekly wages to send the letter. In 1837 Rowland Hill began to urge the government to reduce the rate of postage, and to make a uniform charge of one penny on a letter sent to any part of the kingdom. Hill proved to the British people that, if the rate of postage were lowered, so many letters would be written that the revenue would be largely increased. For a long time the government refused to make the reduction, but at length they were compelled to give way before the popular demand, and, after a short trial of a four-penny rate, in 1840 "penny-postage" was established. In the same year, postage stamps were invented, and soon came into use all over the world.

257. **War with China and with Afghanistan.**—In 1840 the desire to protect the interests of her merchants led Great Britain into a war with China. Shortly before this, the exclusive trading rights of the East India Company had expired, and an active trade in opium carried on by the British merchants, soon sprang up with China. The Chinese government did not wish this drug to be imported into their country, and took strong measures to prevent the importation. At Canton they seized and destroyed several cargoes, and refused to pay damages when called upon by the British government. The Chinese were quite right, but the question was little understood in Britain at the time, and war was the result. The Chinese were easily defeated, and compelled to pay an indemnity. Hong Kong was ceded to Britain, and several cities on the coast of China became open ports for British trade.

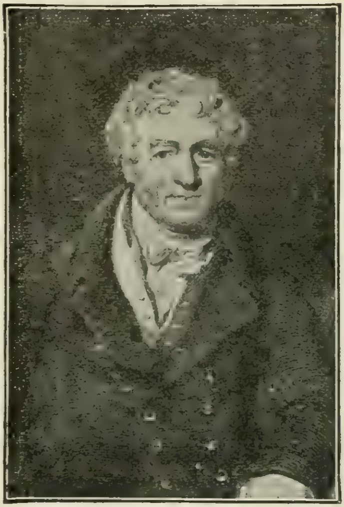
The following year Great Britain was called upon to interfere in a struggle between two claimants for the throne of Afghanistan. Dost Mohammed, who had usurped the throne, was friendly to Russia, and it was feared that British interests in India would suffer if he were allowed to remain in possession of the country. Accordingly, a British army invaded

Afghanistan, deposed the usurper, and placed the former king on the throne. On the way back to India, the army was treacherously attacked, and out of a force of sixteen thousand men, accompanied by many women and children, but one man succeeded in reaching the frontier; the remainder were either killed or taken prisoners. In the next year another expedition rescued the prisoners, punished the treacherous Afghans, and compelled respect for British arms.

258. **The Chartist agitation.**—In 1838 disturbances which at one time threatened to become serious, broke out all over England. The Reform Bill of 1832 had greatly extended the franchise, but the mass of the working men, who formed a large part of the population, were still without votes. A movement to secure the franchise for every man in the country was set on foot, and found a strong support among the poorer classes. A petition was drawn up and presented to Parliament. As this petition was usually spoken of as a "charter," those who supported it became known as Chartists. Their demands were six in number: that every man should have a vote; that voting should be by ballot; that members of Parliament should be paid a salary for their services; that the whole kingdom should be divided into electoral districts with equal population; that members of Parliament should not be required to hold property; that Parliaments should be elected annually instead of every seven years. On the refusal of Parliament to receive the petition, serious rioting broke out in many places, in some cases requiring the use of the military to restore order.

For ten years the agitations continued, but for the most part peaceful means were employed. In 1848, however, encouraged by the success of the French revolutionists who had in that year driven their king from the throne, the Chartists resolved on a bold step. It was announced that a monster petition, containing six million signatures, would be presented to Parliament, and that the leaders on their march to the House of Commons would be accompanied by five hundred thousand men. London was greatly alarmed. Troops were called out; two hundred thousand citizens were sworn in as special constables, and the Duke of Wellington was placed in command. But it came to nothing; fewer than twenty-five thousand people assembled, many of whom were mere spectators. The procession was forbidden and the leader drove alone to the House of Commons and presented the petition. The ridicule which this failure of their plans excited, put an end to the Chartist movement. Their demands, however, were not unreasonable, and several of the reforms called for have since been either wholly or partially accomplished.

259. **The repeal of the Corn Laws.**—Since the beginning of the century a strong agitation had been carried on to repeal the duties imposed on the importation of grain, or *corn*, as it is called in Great Britain. These duties pressed very heavily on the poor people who worked in the factories and mines, and who had to buy their bread. It was feared, however, that if the duties were removed, the revenues of the country would decline, and all attempts to remove them had hitherto failed. The land-owners were all powerful in Parliament, and they were certain that such a step would ruin them.

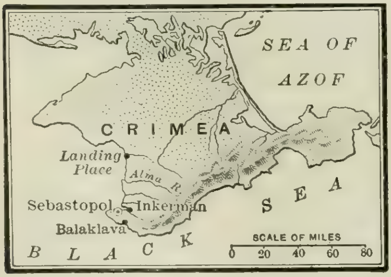

Sir Robert Peel

In 1838 the Anti-Corn League was organized with Richard Cobden, a calico-printer of Manchester, at its head. With him were associated John Bright and Richard Villiers. The members of the league pledged themselves to work for the abolition of all duties on grain. Little by little fair-minded men came to see how selfish it was to starve the working millions in order that a few thousand land-owners might become rich. It was only a question of time when the Corn Laws would be repealed.

The death blow to the Corn Laws came from a famine in Ireland. The Irish peasants cultivated small plots of ground, and their chief food was the potato. Thousands grew to be men and women scarcely knowing the taste of meat; even bread was a luxury. In 1845 a long season of rain and cloud caused a blight to attack the potatoes. The staple food of the people was gone, and they crowded into the cities, where thousands died of starvation or disease arising from the lack of proper food. The famine and the emigration that followed reduced the population of Ireland from eight to six millions.

Sir Robert Peel saw that cheap food must be provided at once, even more for Ireland than for England and Scotland, and pressed upon his associates in the ministry the necessity for repealing the duties on grain. They refused, and Peel resigned. But no minister could be found who could carry on the government, and Peel resumed office. In 1846 a bill was carried through Parliament, to go into effect on February 1st, 1849, which removed practically all duties on grain imported from abroad.

260. **The Crimean War.**—Centuries ago the Mohammedan Turks captured Constantinople and gained a strong foothold in Europe. For many years they were a constant menace to the peace of the continent, but for a century before this period their power had gradually been declining, and they were no longer feared by the other nations. Indeed, it became a question as to what should be done with the territory of the Turks in the expected falling to pieces of the nation. Russia was very anxious to extend her dominions to the Mediterranean, but this was strongly opposed by Great Britain. Turkey, by her position, controlled both the Black Sea and the eastern end of the



THE CRIMEA

Mediterranean, and Great Britain knew that if a strong nation like Russia should gain possession of this important position, her commerce with India would be seriously affected. In 1853 the Czar proposed to the British ambassador at St. Petersburg a plan for the ending of the Turkish empire in Europe and a division of territory between Great Britain and Russia. The proposal was declined, but Russia went quietly on with her plans.

An opportunity soon offered for Russia to interfere in the affairs of Turkey. The Czar, as head of the Greek church, claimed to be the protector of the Greek Christians living in Turkey, and the refusal of the Sultan to recognize this claim led to war. The Turkish fleet was destroyed. Constantinople was threatened by the Russians. At this point Great Britain and France interfered and declared war against Russia. The allies poured troops into the Crimea, defeated the Russians at the Alma River, and laid siege to Sebastopol, the great naval fortress on the Black Sea. Two fierce battles were fought at Balaklava and at Inkerman, in both of which the allies were victorious. At Balaklava took place the famous charge of the Light Brigade, one of the most glorious incidents in the history of the British army.

Lord Palmerston

But the war was badly managed. The officers and men were brave, but the generals were unskilful, and there was no one in command who knew how to feed and clothe an army in the field. During the winter the soldiers were thinly clad and starving in the trenches before Sabastopol, while a few miles away were shiploads of food and warm clothing.

Hospital arrangements were so poor that six men died of disease or neglect to one man killed in battle.

When news of the suffering of the army and the mismanagement of the officials reached England, the popular indignation was so great that the prime minister, Lord Aberdeen, was forced to resign, and Lord Palmerston took his place. In a short time affairs were much improved, and the sufferings of the soldiers relieved. The allies, now joined by the Sardinians, pushed the siege of Sebastopol so vigorously that at last the fortress fell. Peace was made in March, 1856. Great Britain had lost thousands of brave soldiers and had spent £77,000,000. In return she had gained nothing, except to check Russia for a time.

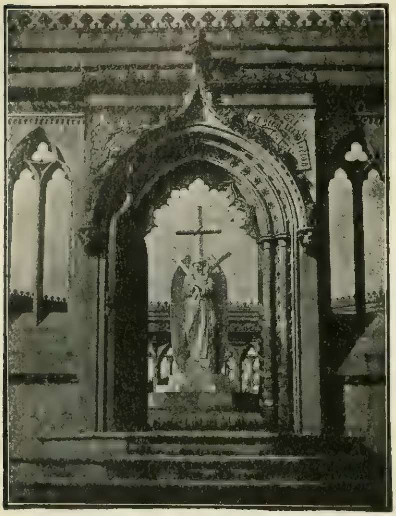
Of all those connected with the Crimean War, perhaps Florence Nightingale will be longest remembered. At the request of the secretary for war, she set out from England with a band of nurses to take full charge of the hospitals in the Crimea. These devoted women soon gave the hospitals an air of order and cleanliness. The effect of their efforts was soon evident in the rapid decrease of the death-rate, and in the number of sick and wounded who were able to return to duty. Florence Nightingale lived to the ripe age of ninety years, dying during the summer of 1910.

261. **The Indian Mutiny, 1857-58.**—Hardly was the Crimean War brought to a close when a terrible mutiny broke out in India among the sepoys, or native soldiers, in the service of the British government. There was some dissatisfaction among the people of India at the way in which the government was administered, but the mutiny itself was, with few exceptions, confined to the troops. The British forces in India consisted almost entirely of natives serving under British officers, but they were thoroughly trained, and had been brought to a high state of efficiency. Several native states had recently been annexed by the British; then, too, certain reforms undertaken by the government had roused a fear among the natives of India that they would all be forced to become Christians. About the same time, a new kind of rifle was introduced that re-

quired cartridges greased with a mixture of tallow and lard, and the soldier was obliged to bite off the end of the cartridge. The Hindu looked upon the cow as sacred, the Mohammedan scorned the hog as unclean; and unscrupulous men, for purposes of their own, persuaded the soldiers that the government had introduced this new cartridge on purpose to insult their religion. This was the immediate reason for the mutiny. Rumor had said in India that British rule there was destined to come to an end one hundred years from the battle of Plassey. The fatal year had come.

The mutiny broke out at Meerut early in 1857, and soon spread to all parts of India. The story that follows is one of untold suffering and heroic endurance. Everywhere the rising was accompanied by frightful massacres, which exhibited all the atrocities of barbarous warfare. The British were not fighting against an undisciplined horde, but against veteran soldiers trained by themselves in all the arts of modern warfare. Massacre followed massacre. Delhi was captured by the sepoys and the ancient government again set up. At Cawnpore the British troops held out bravely for twenty-one days against Nana Sahib, the leader of the rebels, but finally they were induced to surrender by promises of a safe retreat. No sooner had they laid down their arms than they were attacked, and the greater number killed. About two hundred women and children, who were captured at the same time, were shortly afterwards brutally murdered by order of Nana Sahib. At Lucknow the British troops and residents, with the assistance of a number of loyal sepoys, held the Residency for eighty-seven days against the most determined attacks, until Sir Henry Havelock and Sir James Outram came to their aid. But it was not until they had defended the place for one hundred and forty-one days that they were finally relieved by the commander-in-chief, Sir Colin Campbell, and enabled to reach a place of safety. In the Punjab, however, the rebellion made no headway, as there Sir John Lawrence, the able and energetic administrator, armed the Sikhs and overpowered the sepoys at the very beginning of the outbreak.

That the rebellion did not last a very long time was due to the men who were in charge of Indian affairs, more particularly to Lord Canning, the governor-general, and Sir John Lawrence, and to the loyalty of the Sikhs from the northern provinces. Troops were hurried, against apparently overwhelming odds, into the disaffected districts. Delhi was besieged, and after a desperate struggle captured. After the fall of Delhi, the rebellion began to die out, although it was not until over a year later that British authority was once more established over the whole of India.



The Memorial at Cawnpore

The lesson of the mutiny had been severe and was taken to heart by the British government. It was felt that it would not be wise to allow the East India Company to have anything further to do with the government of India, but that Great Britain must assume full responsibility. Accordingly, India was placed under the direct control of the British government. On January 1st, 1877, British rule in India was further strengthened by the proclamation of Queen Victoria as Empress of India.

262. **Minor wars.**—From the close of the Indian mutiny to the end of the century, Great Britain was engaged in a number of wars waged principally against savage or semi-civilized peoples and on behalf of her empire. These were for the most part unimportant, both in the actual fighting and in the results that followed, although some of them were not brought to an end without considerable difficulty. Among the most important of these wars were the Abys-

sinian expedition under Sir Robert Napier in 1867, the Ashanti expedition under Sir Garnet Wolseley in 1873, the war against Cetewayo, the king of the Zulus, conducted by Lord Chelmsford in 1879, and the Afghan war of 1879-80, in which Sir Frederick Roberts held the chief command. The Zulu war is remembered chiefly for the disastrous defeat of the British at Isandlawna, where out of a detachment of eight hundred only forty remained alive, and for the heroic defence of Rorke's drift by a handful of British soldiers against the entire Zulu army. In the Afghan war, Sir Frederick Roberts distinguished himself by his famous march from Kabul to the relief of Kandahar, where a body of British troops was besieged by an overwhelming force of Afghans. For three weeks Roberts disappeared, but at the end of that time, he suddenly appeared before Kandahar and won a decisive victory. This march is considered to be one of the most brilliant military achievements of its kind in either ancient or modern times.

263. **Trouble with the United States.**—In 1861 a civil war broke out between the Northern and the Southern States of the American union, mainly over the question of negro slavery. The British government issued a proclamation declaring a strict neutrality, and warning British subjects against giving aid to either side. The war caused great distress in the manufacturing districts of England, owing to the impossibility of obtaining raw cotton, the supply of which came principally from the Southern States.

The Southern Confederacy had sent two commissioners to England, who had taken passage in a British vessel, the *Trent*. An officer of the United States navy boarded the *Trent* and forcibly took the two men prisoners. This act caused great excitement, and for a time it seemed that war would result, but in the end the United States admitted that the act was wrong and the men were surrendered.

While the war was in progress the Southern ports were blockaded by United States war-ships. Many British merchantmen ran the blockade, and carried supplies to the Confederates, returning loaded with cotton. At a later period the Confederates fitted out vessels, such as the *Ala-*

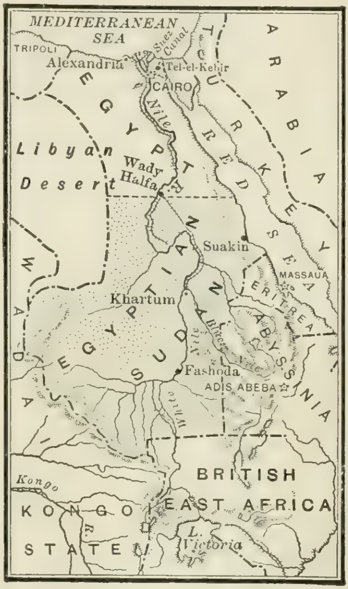
bama, in British ports, and used them to injure the commerce of the United States. When the Civil War had been brought to an end, the United States claimed compensation for these injuries. The most that could be urged against Great Britain was that the government had not taken care to prevent the vessels from leaving port, after it was known that they were being fitted out with hostile designs against the United States. It was agreed by the treaty of Washington that the claims should be settled by arbitration, and in 1872 an international court met at Geneva, Switzerland, for this purpose. The court awarded the United States $15,500,000, and the award was promptly paid.

264. **The treaty of Berlin.**—In 1876 the eastern question again troubled the peace of Europe. The Servians, Montenegrins, and Bulgarians, goaded to desperation by the oppression of the Turks, rose in open rebellion. The rising was put down with such severity that the European powers felt called upon to interfere. Russia, however, was the only power that carried her interference so far as to declare war. At first the Turks were victorious; but when the Russian army laid siege to Constantinople, the Sultan gave way, and a preliminary treaty, which would have placed Turkey completely under the control of Russia, was signed.

Benjamin Disraeli, Earl of Beaconsfield

Such a state of affairs would have reversed almost entirely all the arrangements made after the Crimean War, and would have seriously threatened Britain's supremacy in the East. Accordingly, the British government issued a circular letter to the powers, urging joint action in connection with the Turkish question. The powers agreed, and a Congress was held in 1878 at Berlin, which was attended by the prime minister, Benjamin Disraeli, and Lord Salisbury as the representatives of Great Britain. Many questions were settled, but the principal result was the checking of Russia's ambitious designs. Britain undertook to guarantee the Sultan's possessions in Asia, and in return occupied Cyprus.

265. **Affairs in Egypt.**—Among the foreign enterprises of Disraeli, was the purchase of nearly half the stock of the Suez Canal Company. The Khedive of Egypt sold his share, which was nearly half the entire value of the canal, to the British government for $20,000,000. The people of Great Britain were delighted with the transaction, because the canal is of the utmost value to their commerce. The purchase gave Great Britain some right to interfere in Egyptian affairs, and the necessity for such interference soon arose.



THE EGYPTIAN SOUDAN

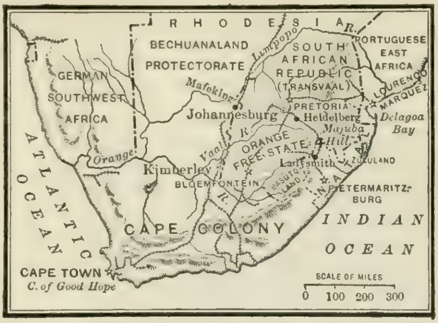
In 1882 a rising against Europeans in Egypt, led by Arabi Bey, an officer of the Egyptian army, resulted in the bombardment and destruction of Alexandria by the British. This was followed by the battle of Tel-el-Kebir, where Sir Garnet Wolseley defeated Arabi Bey and took him prisoner. The Khedive has continued to be the nominal ruler of Egypt, but since 1882 the practical control has been entirely in the hands of Great Britain.

The Egyptian government had gradually been extending its rule over the Soudan, the great country south of Egypt and west of Abyssinia, and several garrisons were established at Khartoum and other places. These garrisons were threatened by the rising of a new "Mahdi," a prophet among the Arabs of the Soudan. The fanatical Mohammedans fought with great bravery, and defeated several Egyptian armies sent against them. The native forces were in turn defeated in two battles by a British expedition under General Graham, but these troops were at once withdrawn. The British government then sent General Gordon to withdraw the Egyptian garrisons from the Soudan. He succeeded in reaching Khartoum, but was there hemmed in by the Mahdi. While waiting for British troops to come to his aid, he and his army were massacred in 1885 by the natives, who were treacherously admitted into the fort. A short time after the death of Gordon, the relief expedition under Lord Wolseley arrived at Khartoum, only to find it in possession of the Mahdi.

For some years the Soudan remained in the possession of the Khalifa, who had inherited the leadership of the Mahdi; but in 1898 General Kitchener was sent into the Soudan from Egypt with an army of twenty-five thousand men. He met the Arabs, fifty thousand strong, at Omdurman, and completely defeated them. This victory was followed by the capture of Khartoum, and the establishment of British supremacy in the Soudan.

266. **The Boer War, 1899-1902.**—In 1899 Great Britain became engaged in a struggle with the Transvaal Republic and the Orange Free State. South Africa had originally been settled by the Dutch, who soon became known as Boers, the Dutch word for *farmers*. In the course of the wars with Napoleon this land fell into the hands of the British. The Boers disliked British rule. They preferred to live by themselves, cultivating great tracts of territory and pasturing large herds of cattle, which were looked after by natives, servants in name, but in reality slaves. On several occasions the Boers abandoned their homes before the advance of British settlement, and went further north, finally settling down in the Transvaal and the Orange Free State. But difficulties with the natives were constant, and Britain was frequently called on to protect the new settlements against the tribes, who

were justly angry at the way in which they were treated by the Boers. In 1881, after the close of the war with the Zulus, the Transvaal demanded that Great Britain should recognize its independence, as some years before it had in the case of the Orange Free State. The result was that the Boers invaded Natal and defeated small bodies of British troops at Laing's Nek and Majuba Hill. Immediately after the latter battle the British government gave up the contest and declared the Transvaal to be independent, except in matters relating to foreign affairs and dealings with the native chiefs.



THE BOER REPUBLICS

Then gold was discovered in the Transvaal, and this new interest brought swarms of people, chiefly British, into the country. The Boers were determined to yield nothing. Instead of welcoming the newcomers and admitting them to a share in the government, they did what they could to make their position uncomfortable, imposed heavy taxes and monopolies upon them, and refused to grant them any privileges in return. The British government finally interfered on behalf of the Outlanders, as the new settlers were called, and requested the Transvaal to treat them with more consideration. This was refused, and then it became a question as to who should rule in South Africa. The Orange Free State sided with the Transvaal, an insolent answer was given to the British demands, the Boers invaded British territory, and the struggle broke out.

At first the Boers, strong in the remembrance of Majuba Hill, advanced rapidly and hemmed in large bodies of British troops in Ladysmith, Mafeking, and Kimberley. These places made an heroic defence, and at once tremendous efforts were made to relieve them. At first the British troops, over-confident and ill-prepared, suffered some severe reverses, but now the whole Empire was shaken to its centre. Troops were poured into South Africa from Great Britain and India; Canada, Australia, and New Zealand furnished men and hurried them to the seat of war, and soon a large army under Lord Roberts marched into the Orange Free State. By a brilliant march, Lord Roberts captured the Boer general Cronje with his army, occupied Bloemfontein, the capital of the Orange Free State, and soon was in possession of Pretoria, the capital of the Transvaal. The immediate result of this rapid series of manœuvres was the relief of the besieged places, to the intense joy of the whole Empire. Lord Roberts was now obliged to return to England, and the conduct of affairs was left to Lord Kitchener. However, the war was not yet over; in fact the most difficult part was to come. The Boers were determined not to give in, and fought desperately to retain their independence. Separating into small bands, and mounted on rapid horses, they kept up a guerilla warfare for some time longer. At last, however, they recognized that defeat was inevitable, and on May 31st, 1902, a peace was arranged. Liberal terms were granted to the Boers, and the two republics became a part of the British Empire.

Earl Roberts

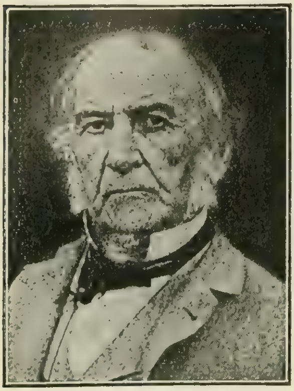
267. **Great parliamentary leaders.**—The history of Britain during the reign of Victoria centres mainly around the lives of four men, Sir Robert Peel, Lord Palmerston, Benjamin Disraeli, and William Ewart Gladstone. There were many other statesmen, such as Lord Melbourne, Lord John Russell, and Earl Derby, who held high and important offices, but

these four men are the most commanding figures. All were members of the House of Commons, all were great leaders, and all were associated with measures for the advancement of their country.

Sir Robert Peel first entered Parliament in 1809, and, as his promotion was rapid, some of his best work was done before Victoria began to reign. He was associated with a number of the most important reform movements of the century, particularly the abolition of the Corn Laws, a question on which he was compelled to differ from his associates and from almost all his old-time supporters in the House of Commons. Many of his followers accused him of deserting the policy he had been chosen to support, and he was driven from power. He still held his high place in the esteem of the nation, but did not again hold office. In 1850 he was killed by a fall from his horse.

Lord Palmerston, a viscount in the peerage of Ireland, was, in many respects, the opposite of Sir Robert Peel. He was very little interested in home affairs, and for the most part was a steady opponent of political reform. His greatest triumphs were won in the field of diplomacy. As foreign minister, he had a passion for maintaining the honour and dignity of Britain, and perhaps plunged his country into many conflicts which might, without much difficulty, have been avoided. The nation, however, felt that its interests abroad were safe as long as Palmerston had control. He died, while prime minister, in 1865.

Benjamin Disraeli believed in his country as thoroughly as did Lord Palmerston, and was sincerely anxious to have Great Britain play a brilliant part among the nations, and to have her greatness recognized in every part of the world. His first speech in the House of Commons was received with such shouts of laughter that he was compelled to sit down. "I will sit down now," he said, "but the time will come when you will hear me." Step by step his knowledge of public questions and his skill in debate brought him to the front, and the Conservatives were forced to accept him as their leader, although many of them believed that he was a man without strong political convictions. He became prime minister for the first time in 1868. In 1876 he was raised to the peerage as Earl of Beaconsfield. He died in 1881.



William Ewart Gladstone

William Ewart Gladstone differed from all three of his great contemporaries in his intense interest in domestic legislation and in social and political reforms. He was much more anxious to raise the masses of the people than to play a great part in the politics of the world. One of his strongest desires was to keep Britain at peace, and to impress the nations that, though strong, his country was just. His work as a statesman was wholly intended to improve the condition of the people, and to him is due a great deal of the most important legislation of the last sixty years. Throughout his career he may at times have seemed inconsistent, but every change of opinion was always a step in advance; he never hesitated to do what he thought to be right. His death took place in 1898.

268. **Irish reforms.**—Throughout the reign of Victoria, the "Irish question" was a pressing matter. One difficulty after another rose and "would not down." After Daniel O'Connell's success in securing parliamentary representation for the Roman Catholics, he aimed at nothing less than a free Parliament for Ireland and a separation from England. What might have been the result if the life of this earnest, eloquent, enthusiastic leader of the people had been prolonged, it is not easy to say.

One great cause of complaint in Ireland was that all inhabitants, of whatever church, were taxed to support the Episcopal church. Another was the famous "land question." Vast areas of Irish land were owned by Englishmen who, perhaps, had never been in Ireland, and had no further interest in the country than to see that their agents were prompt in forwarding the rents. A tenant might be driven from his farm at any moment. If he drained a swamp or cleared a bit of land from stumps and stones, his rent would be raised because the land had become more valuable. In 1868, under Gladstone's leadership, a law was passed disestablishing the Episcopal church in Ireland. Two years later, he succeeded in carrying through an Irish Land Act, which provided that the tenant should be paid for making improvements, and that if he paid his rent he should not be driven from his farm at the whim of the landlord.

This law was good, but the landlords found ways of evading it. Then a strong party arose in Ireland demanding "Home Rule," that is, that Ireland should have a Parliament of her own, which would be supreme in local affairs. The leader was Charles Stuart Parnell. He was a calm, cool man, but many of his followers were hot-headed and violent; frequently there were murders and other crimes in Ireland. In spite of this, Gladstone still struggled on behalf of Irish Home Rule, but though a bill for this purpose was finally passed by the Commons in 1892, it was defeated by the Lords. The struggle for Home Rule carried on by Gladstone caused a split in the Liberal party in Great Britain, as many of his supporters, led by such men as the Duke of Devonshire, John Bright, and Joseph Chamberlain, abandoned him, and joined the Conservatives who were opposed to granting a separate government to Ireland. The Marquis of Salisbury, who succeeded Gladstone as prime minister, found his supporters among both Conservatives and Liberals, who were thenceforth known as Unionists.

269. **The extension of the franchise.**—The cry for an extension of the franchise, raised at first by the Chartists, died away on the adoption of a free-trade policy, only to awaken with increased force after the Crimean War. The demand among the people was so strong that Gladstone, in 1866, introduced a Reform Bill, but the measure was defeated in the House of Commons, and the government was forced to resign. In the next year, however, Disraeli carried through a Reform Bill even more far-reaching than the one defeated a year before. By this bill the small tenant-farmers, tradesmen, merchants, and clerks received

the franchise. Five years later Gladstone carried through the Ballot Act, thus granting another demand of the Chartists. Before this, the voter went to the polls and openly declared for which candidate his votes should be counted. After the Ballot Act came into force, it was impossible to tell for whom the voter cast his ballot, thus lessening very much the dangers of bribery and threatening. In 1884 Gladstone passed the third Reform Bill, which gave the right to vote to two and one-half millions of farm labourers, miners, and male servants. Before 1832, the voters were one in every fifty of the population; after 1884, they were one in six, or one to almost every family.

270. **Religious freedom.**—The progress of religious freedom was rapid during the reign of Victoria. The repeal of the Test and other preventative Acts had given Roman Catholics and Protestant dissenters the right to vote and to hold public offices. It was not, however, until 1858 that this right was extended to the Jews. In that year Baron Rothschild, the head of the great Jewish banking house of that name, was allowed to take his seat in the House of Commons.

From the time of their foundation, the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge were closely connected with the church of England. No student was allowed to take a degree unless he would subscribe to the Thirty-nine Articles, nor could a scholar be appointed to any office in either of the universities without a similar test. In 1871 Parliament, acting on the report of a Royal Commission appointed to investigate the question, removed these tests.

In 1868 compulsory rates for the support of the established church were abolished, and in 1870 dissenters were allowed to bury their dead in the parish churchyards, using their own rites and ceremonies. The church of England still remains the established church in England and Wales and the church of Scotland in Scotland; in Ireland there is no established church.

271. **The progress of education.**—The marriage registers of England and Wales furnish certain proof that when Victoria began to reign, two out of every five grown men and

women could not sign their names; when the queen died, this number was less than one in ten. From the very beginning of the Victorian period interest in education was quickened. The church schools and charity schools, as well as private schools, increased in numbers and improved in methods. The educated classes began to realize that ignorance was a national calamity. No doubt, too, the example of public schools in other countries influenced opinion in England.

After the passage of the Reform Bill of 1867, Robert Lowe, a member of Parliament remarked, "Now that we are ruled by the majority, the workingmen, we must educate our own masters." It was not, however, until 1870 that an Education Act was passed, establishing a system of national education under the supervision of elective school boards. A small fee was charged where the people could afford to pay. All children were compelled to attend, and the dense ignorance which had so long prevailed in the great cities began to disappear. In each town there was a School Board chosen to look after the new schools, to which the name "Board Schools" was therefore given. Women as well as men were allowed to become members of such boards, and some of the best people took an active interest in education. This system was much improved in 1891, and made entirely free; since that time, the poorest child is secured a fair education. In 1872 an Education Act, similar to that in England, was passed for Scotland; in Ireland also ample provision is made for the free education of the people.

272. **Material and social progress.**—Steam railways and steamships were just beginning operation in Great Britain when Victoria became queen. Their future was uncertain. Many people thought that George Stephenson was out of his mind when he said that it would soon be cheaper for a labourer to ride on a railway to his work than to wear out shoe-leather in walking. In spite of opposition, however, before Victoria's death, Britain had twenty-two thousand miles of railway, trains were run frequently at the rate of seventy miles an hour, and the workingman could travel any place for a penny a mile, and often for less. The progress of

engineering, so important in the building of railways, has benefited the people in another way. It is now common for large cities to bring through underground pipes a supply of pure water from natural lakes, often more than thirty miles distant.

The first steamboat crossed the Atlantic in 1838, and within five years Britain had rapid communication with every part of the world. The laying of ocean cables perfected this communication, and was of special advantage to an empire stretching round the globe. Sixty years ago there were towns in England of twelve thousand people without a post-office. Now every village has not only a post-office, but government telegraph and telephone lines. A few years before Victoria's time a daily newspaper which gave very little news cost £10 a year; now a paper with the latest home and foreign news sells on the streets of London daily for half a penny. Half a century ago the labourer's cottage often had not even a tallow candle; now coal oil and gas and electricity are so cheap that all may use them. Before the discovery of photography and electrotyping even the commonest pictures were beyond the poor; now reproductions of works of art are within the reach of all. Improved and cheaper processes of type-setting and printing have made books so cheap that the poorest labourer may own his own library, if he wishes.

Cardinal Newman

Great suffering, too, has been prevented by the discovery of chloroform and ether. In the time of the Crimean War thousands of wounded soldiers died, whose lives might have been saved by a better knowledge of surgery, especially in the use of antiseptics. One of the greatest glories of the Victorian age is the work done in the way of preventing disease and suffering.

During the reign of Victoria, the condition of the working classes was greatly improved. The organization of trade unions enabled them to band together and work unitedly to gain their ends. Laws regulating labour, ventilation in factories and mines, and compensation to injured workmen, were passed and rigidly enforced. Crime also diminished greatly; in 1837 there were fifty thousand convicts in the prisons of Great Britain, to-day there are about six thousand. Industrial schools were established, where young offenders of both sexes were made to work and were taught some useful trade.

Women, too, have gradually been gaining more freedom and better opportunities. In 1869 single women and widows who were householders were given votes in municipal elections, and in 1870 they were allowed both to vote for and to be elected to School Boards.

273. **The literature of Victoria's reign.**—It is not difficult to look back upon a century that is long past and see who were the greatest writers, but the Victorian age is so near that we cannot always distinguish the books that will last from those that are liked for a moment and then forgotten. The great events of the Elizabethan period stimulated the imagination, but the marvellous inventions of our own time are just as exciting. To-day education is far more general. Very many wish to write, and in this mass of writing there is much that is really excellent. To select from the long list of authors that seem to be great is not easy. Tennyson, Browning, and Swinburne are perhaps the first of the poets. Among historians the name of Macaulay is most familiar to the British people as a whole, partly because he wrote a history of their own land, but chiefly because his style is so clear and interesting. Thomas

Lord Tennyson

Carlyle, Cardinal Newman, and John Ruskin are masters of prose, and certain to be remembered.

Charles Dickens

Among the books of whose making there is no end, the novel holds the most prominent place. Scott, Dickens, Thackeray, and "George Eliot" have long been our best known writers of fiction, four authors who are so dissimilar that the popularity of all is, in itself, a proof that the novel is enjoyed by all kinds of people. But the object of the novel of to-day is not merely to give pleasure. Fiction is no longer a source of amusement and nothing more; it has become a useful servant. Perhaps the most excellent feature of this ascendency of the novel is that we require our fiction to be true to life. Adventures must be probable, characters must be consistent, and the historical novel, if it would have more than a passing fame, must be the work of the student as well as the teller of stories.

274. **Jubilee years.**—The fiftieth anniversary of Victoria's accession to the throne was celebrated in 1887 by a brilliant military parade at which representative troops from all parts of the Empire were present. Ten years later, in 1897, the sixtieth anniversary was celebrated by an even more imposing military spectacle. The prime ministers of all the colonies, accompanied by detachments of colonial troops, attended, and took part in the demonstration. Both these jubilee parades were more than mere show. They demonstrated the wealth, the extent, the power, and the loyalty of a united and self-governing people.

275. **Influence of Queen Victoria.**—There were world-stirring events during the life of Queen Victoria, but no one of them held so steadily the interest and attention of the

English-speaking world as did the queen herself. Her twenty years of marriage with Prince Albert were the happiest period of her life, and at his death her sorrow was so overwhelming and so enduring that her people felt almost impatient with her avoidance of all social life. Neither grief nor weariness, however, was allowed to interfere with the hard work which, from the beginning of her reign to its close, she felt was demanded by her position. One of her prime ministers is said to have declared that he "would rather manage ten kings than one queen;" for she would do nothing for expediency, and would sign no papers that she did not understand. In the year of the Chartist excitement, for instance, every one of the twenty-eight thousand despatches that came to the foreign office passed through her hands and engaged her thoughts. It was no easy life that she led.

Queen Victoria at the age of Seventy-eight

In her reign there were "wars and rumours of wars," but the influence of Victoria herself was always for peace. With her, in place of the Hanoverian obstinacy or corruptness came firmness and purity. One of the stories of her childhood says that when she first knew that some time she would be queen of England, she said, "I will be good." Marcus Aurelius says that it is "hard to be good in a palace," but Queen Victoria showed by her sixty-three years in "that fierce light which beats upon a throne" that her childish promise was as sacred to her as the solemn oath of her coronation.

The queen died in January, 1901, at Osborne House, her winter residence in the Isle of Wight.

> "Her court was pure; her life serene:
> God gave her peace; her land reposed;
> A thousand claims to reverence closed
> In her as Mother, Wife, and Queen."

SUMMARY

In Victoria's reign the result of the Chartist agitation, of the repeal of the Corn Laws, and of the admission of Jews to Parliament gave increased freedom to many thousand people, while "board schools" made it possible for a much larger number of children to obtain an education. There were several wars: the "Opium War" with China; the Afghan War; the Crimean War, famous chiefly for the bravery of the soldiers and the suffering they endured; the terrible Indian Mutiny, and the war with the Boers in South Africa. The "Alabama Claims" against Great Britain by the United States were settled by arbitration. The demand of Ireland for reforms had long been a pressing question, but some progress was made towards its solution. The literature of the reign is of immense bulk and of widely varying value, some of it approaching near to the most excellent work of the past ages. The progress of invention was unprecedented. In one sense the reign of Victoria was a "personal monarchy," for by the irresistible force of a strong, pure womanhood, she attained that sovereignty over her land and her people for which arbitrary and tyrannous rulers have sought in vain.

7. EDWARD VII. 1901–1910

276. **A constitutional king.**—After being fifty-eight years Prince of Wales, much was expected of Edward as king. When taking the oath of office, he expressed a desire to follow in the footsteps of his mother as a constitutional monarch, and, during his reign his course was such as to satisfy even the most exacting critic. His severe illness, just at the date set for his coronation in 1902, called forth the sympathy of the whole world. At his accession an important change was made in the title of the king. He was crowned as "Edward VII, by the grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of the British Dominions beyond the seas, King, Defender of the Faith,

Emperor of India." This is henceforth to be the official designation of our sovereign.

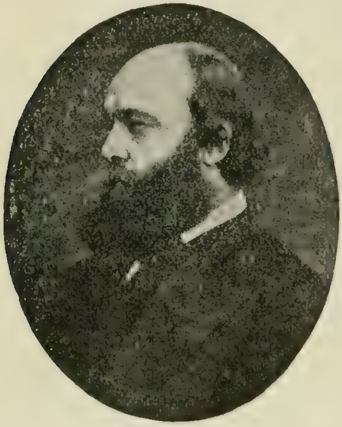
277. **Domestic legislation.**—Owing to advancing age, the Marquis of Salisbury, who had been prime minister at the accession of Edward, resigned in 1902. He was succeeded by Arthur J. Balfour, who in 1903, carried through an Irish Land Bill in the endeavour to do away with the existing discontent in that country. By the terms of this bill, the Irish farmers are assisted by the Imperial government in buying their farms from the landlords. As the farmers become freeholders, it is hoped that they will have an increased interest in making homes for themselves and in the general prosperity of the country. The results of the bill are so far quite satisfactory, many tenant-farmers having already taken advantage of its provisions. Later, under the government of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, who succeeded Balfour as prime minister, many reforms were made in the government of Ireland, particularly in the establishment of universities satisfactory to the people. The Irish leaders, however, are by no means satisfied with these measures of reform as the final settlement of all the difficulties that surround the Irish question, and are still keeping up a vigorous agitation in favour of Home Rule.

King Edward VII

A new Education Bill was also passed by the Balfour government in 1902, supplemented as regards London by an act in the following year. These acts extended the national system of education to embrace all departments from the primary school to the university, and made County Councils and County Borough Councils the local school authorities for their districts. State aid is given to public and private schools alike, and religious instruction is permitted.

An important departure was made in 1908, when, by the

Old Age Pension Act, every man or woman over seventy years of age who has been a British subject, and has had his residence in the United Kingdom for twenty years and whose income does not exceed twenty-five pounds, is entitled to receive a pension of an amount which runs, according to his or her means from one shilling to five shillings a week. In 1909, nearly seven hundred thousand persons in Great Britain and Ireland were in receipt of old age pensions from the government.



THE MARQUIS OF SALISBURY

In 1909 a serious difference arose between the Liberal government, under the premiership of Herbert Henry Asquith, and the House of Lords, over the question of the budget, or moneys to be provided by Parliament for carrying on the government of the country. Certain forms of taxation proposed were strongly objected to by the Lords, who maintained their right to reject the budget as a whole, and so force an appeal to the people. This they did, and a general election followed. The result was favourable to the government and the House of Lords agreed to the budget; but the constitutional question arising from their action still remains unsettled.

278. **Relations with foreign powers.**—In 1898 the Czar of Russia issued invitations to the rulers of all civilized nations to send representatives to a Peace Conference to meet at The Hague. The result was an arrangement by which a permanent international Arbitration Court was established, the meetings of the court to be held at The Hague. No nation has as yet agreed to submit all disputes with other nations to this court, but many, including Great Britain, have agreed to submit for its decision such questions as do not vitally affect their national honour.

Thus in 1904, a serious international dispute in which Great Britain became engaged was settled by reference to arbitration. Late in the autumn of that year, the Russian fleet set out for Asiatic waters to take part in the Russo-Japanese War. Owing to a mistake on the part of the commander of the fleet, when in the North Sea, several shots were fired at British fishing boats engaged in fishing on the Dogger Bank. Two men were killed and several injured. For some time there was a possibility of war between the two countries, but wise and prudent council prevailed. The question was referred to arbitration and a friendly settlement was reached.

Several important arrangements were made during the reign of Edward which have had a strong effect in securing the peace of the world. In 1904 an agreement was reached with France by which all questions then in dispute between the two countries were amicably settled. France consented to recognize British supremacy in Egypt, and in return Great Britain recognized French supremacy in Morocco. At the same time, among a number of smaller but not less vexatious matters, the "French Shore" difficulty in Newfoundland was adjusted. In the next year an offensive and defensive alliance was entered into with Japan to maintain the existing condition of affairs in the East, for a term not longer than ten years, from 1905. With Russia, also, an arrangement was made which ensured a thorough understanding with that monarchy.

No influence has been more potent for peace and in securing friendly relations with foreign powers than that of Edward VII. By his wise statesmanship and kindly tact, combined with long experience, he was enabled to secure for Great Britain the cordial friendship of practically every nation in the world. His efforts in this direction gained for him, with the consent of all civilized nations, the title of "Peace-maker."

279. **Death of Edward VII.**—Early in May, 1910, the announcement was made from Buckingham Palace that the king was suffering from a severe cold, but it was not thought that the illness was serious. Two days later, on May 6th, 1910, he died. The death of no British sovereign

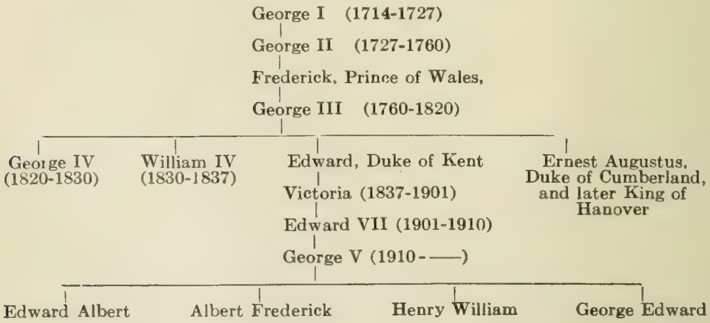
ever called forth more sincere expressions of sorrow than did that of Edward VII. Nor was the sorrow confined to the British dominions; the whole world joined in mourning for the dead king. He had proved himself, during his short reign of nine years, a wise sovereign, a brilliant diplomatist and a kindly and kingly man.

280. **The reigning king.**—On the death of Edward VII, his son, the Prince of Wales, became king under the name of George V. He was early intended for the navy, and, until the death of Queen Victoria, followed that profession. Since that time he has visited almost every part of the British Empire, making himself familiar with the countries and the people over whom he now rules. In 1893 he married the Princess Victoria Mary, of Teck, who now shares the throne with him as Queen Mary.

SUMMARY

When Edward succeeded Victoria, he expressed a desire to follow in her footsteps and to be, in fact as well as in name, a constitutional ruler. Many measures of reform were carried in the effort to better social conditions. Reforms were also made in the government of Ireland. Many international agreements of first importance were made with foreign powers. The efforts of the king were directed towards securing the most friendly relations between Great Britain and the nations of the world.

THE HOUSE OF HANOVER



CHAPTER IX

THE BRITISH EMPIRE

281. **The British Empire.**—In all the history of dominion, there is, perhaps, nothing more astounding than the fact that a small country almost without allies or even well-wishers, should have extended its power over so large a part of the world as the British Empire occupies to-day. It now includes about one-quarter of the land surface of the globe. Of its total population, only about fifty-five millions, or one in seven, are of British blood. Unless this fact is grasped clearly, it is impossible to appreciate the wonderful work being done in controlling and civilizing the millions of subject people, comprising hundreds of races, each with its own language, customs, and religion. Rarely, if ever, does Britain find it necessary to resort to force in governing her subject peoples. Even their prejudices are respected; their religion, their social customs, and local laws are seldom interfered with, unless for the purpose of preventing crime or abolishing brutal customs. In this lies the secret of Britain's empire-building. Her aim is to give her colonies as great a measure of self-government as their loyalty, intelligence, and general circumstances warrant. The Dominions, such as Canada, Australia. New Zealand and South Africa, have practically complete self-government; some of the colonies, such as the Channel Islands and Bermuda, have governments partly under their own control; yet others, like Jamaica and many colonies in Africa, are ruled, except in purely local matters, by Councils over which the crown has control. Even outside the Empire proper, Britain exercises a controlling and protecting power over vast areas such as Egypt and many other parts of Africa.

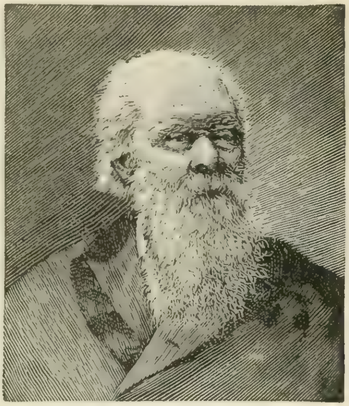
The efficient control of this vast Empire has been made possible only by the remarkable improvements of the last century in the means of transportation and communication. Of these the most recent is the cable that, in 1902, was laid across the Pacific from Canada to Australia and New Zealand, so that to-day it is possible to send a message around the world by cable and telegraph lines touching only on British soil.

282. **The Dominion of Canada.**—When Britain obtained Canada in 1763, a famous French writer exclaimed, "Only a few thousand acres of snow." It took Britain nearly half a century to discover that her new possession had any value except as a hunting and fishing ground and a source of forest wealth. It took another half century to show that Canada would eventually include half a continent and stretch from the Atlantic to the Pacific. From the scattered colonies of 1763 has been formed, in less than one-hundred and fifty years, a nation of about eight millions of self-governing people, strong in their devotion to their country, and loyal to the Empire to which they belong.

283. **The Commonwealth of Australia.**—Just when Britain was losing her Thirteen Colonies in America, she was fixing her grip upon an island continent under the Southern Cross. Captain Cook visited Australia in 1770, and although the savage natives prevented any extensive inland explorations, he claimed the whole coast line as British territory. Convict settlements were begun in 1788. These convicts in time became free, and together with their children and free emigrants, formed the beginning of a colony. In those days men were transported from Britain for comparatively trivial offences, and these convicts were not necessarily men of vicious or criminal desires. In many cases they needed only an opportunity to become good citizens.

In 1803 Lieutenant Macarthur tried an experiment which showed that Australia was admirably adapted to sheep-farming. He brought Merino sheep from Cape Colony, and soon thousands of flocks were grazing on the hillsides. In 1851 gold was discovered, and settlers rushed in from every quarter of the globe. In 1864 Britain finally abandoned the island as a penal colony. Strong self-governing colonies were established, each with a governor from the motherland.

In 1901, largely through the efforts of Sir Henry Parkes, the six Australian colonies, New South Wales, Queensland, Victoria, South Australia, West Australia, and the island of Tasmania, were united in a federal union called the Commonwealth of Australia. The population of this Commonwealth is about four millions.



SIR HENRY PARKES

284. **The Dominion of New Zealand.**—This dominion consists of a group of islands situated about twelve hundred miles south-east of Australia. The first British settlements were made in 1839, and for many years afterwards the native Maoris kept the colonists in constant alarm. In recent years there has been no conflict, and now four Maori members sit in the New Zealand legislature. New Zealand, like Canada, is one of the self-governing Dominions. Its population is about one million.

285. **The Union of South Africa.**—It is now a century since Britain took possession of Cape Town. Gradually by conquest, by treaty with friendly natives, and by explorations, her power has grown, until her territory stretches continuously from the Cape of Good Hope to Lake Tanganyika. Throughout this large tract she has preserved order, protected the natives, and developed the resources of the country. She had a war with the fierce Zulus in 1879, one with the Boers in 1881, and another with the Boers in 1899-1902. The result has been to increase the power and obligations of Britain.

Cecil Rhodes, the founder of Rhodesia, dreamed of a great South African confederation stretching from the Cape to the equator. His dream has now been partly realized, as in 1910, the four provinces of Orange River, Transvaal, Natal, and Cape Colony were formed into the Union of South Africa, with a government somewhat similar to that of Canada and Australia. Britons and Boers are now united in the one object of building up another great British province in South Africa. General Louis Botha, who had commanded a Boer army in the war of 1899-1902, became the first premier. The Union of South Africa has a total population, including the native tribes, about the same as Australia, and the rich gold and diamond mines are attracting more people each year.

Cecil Rhodes

The protectorate of Rhodesia, lying immediately to the north of the Union of South Africa, has a population of about two millions, for the most part natives. The government of the protectorate is administered by the British South Africa Company, under the direction of a resident commissioner appionted by the crown.

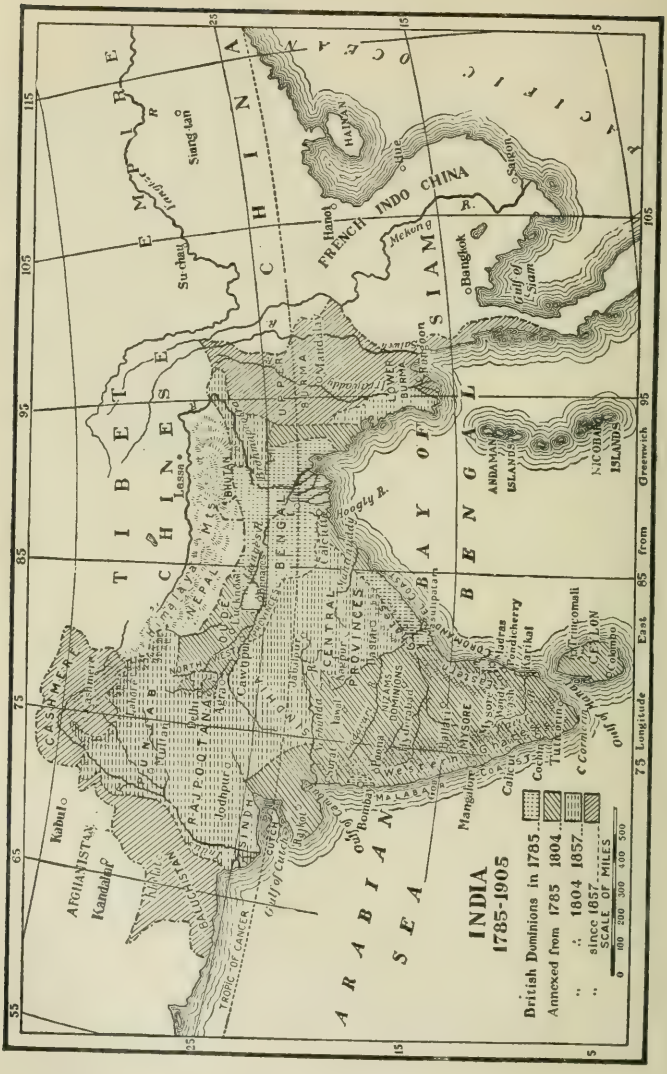
286. **The Indian Empire.**—The Indian empire really dates from the battle of Plassey. The territory won by Clive for the East India Company was extended gradually, until it included the greater part of India. This extension was not accomplished, however, without many fierce contests and hard-won battles. The most dangerous of all these wars were the two with the Sikhs in 1845 and 1848, in which Sir Hugh Gough commanded the British forces. Pitt's India Bill of 1784 divided the responsibility of government between the crown and the East India Company. After the Indian Mutiny the crown assumed the whole responsibility. Such a responsibility has never before been undertaken by any government. It seems almost beyond belief that one nation, with the aid of a few thousand soldiers and civil

servants, should be able to rule a people made up of many nations and numbering three hundred millions of souls. The marvel is the greater when it is considered that the ruling nation and the subject peoples are separated by the greater part of two continents. But is well for India that she is under British rule. Without the firm control of a guiding power, she would be torn by internal strife and exposed to the greed and trickery of powerful neighbours.

The Secretary of State for India is the official through whom the Imperial government controls India. The governor-general, or Viceroy, of India carries out the instructions of the Secretary of State and advises him as to the actual conditions in India. The governor-general has a Council of six members to assist him. Each councillor has control of one or more departments of government. Local matters, such as roads, bridges, fairs, markets, water-supply, education, and hospitals are under municipal Councils, for the most part consisting of natives. Schools of agriculture and great irrigation works are under the governor-general and his Council. By the Indian Council Bill of 1909, the people of India were admitted to a certain degree of freedom in the election of representatives, thus making their interest in the government of India more personal, and therefore more in the interest of the country.

The Indian empire proper consists of nine great provinces, —Madras, Bombay, Bengal, the United Province of Agra and Oudh, the Punjab, Burma, Eastern Bengal and Assam, the Central Provinces, and the North-Western Frontier Province—and four smaller provinces. Besides these states there are the thirteen native, or feudatory states, with a population of sixty-two millions. Over these, Britain exercises a control through a political resident, who assists the native prince. The native states are free so far as internal affairs are concerned; their external relations are wholly directed by the governor-general of India. Bhutan and Nepal are independent, but friendly to Britain. Their princes receive annual money grants from the Indian government.

The Indian army consists of seventy-eight thousand British and one hundred and fifty-eight thousand natives. This



INDIA
1785-1905

British Dominions in 1785 ▨
Annexed from 1785 to 1804 ▨
" " 1804 to 1857 ▨
" since 1857 ▨

army has been brought to a high state of service, and is being maintained up to this standard. The entire expense of the Indian army is paid by the government of India. In addition to the regular troops there are thirty-four thousand volunteers and an Imperial Service Troop of twenty thousand men, maintainee by the native states.

287. **Egypt.**—Since 1882 Great Britain has been in practical control of the government of Egypt, as British protection was found to be necessary for the peace of that country. Much good has already been accomplished in the way of settling the finances of the country and in securing orderly government. An immense amount of British capital is now invested there; the great Assouan dam on the Nile is fertilizing thousands of once arid acres, and is providing a steady supply of water for thousands of farms that before produced small crops. The Cape to Cairo railway now extends up the Nile to Khartoum. Its completion in the near future will make Egypt an outlet for the wealth of Central Africa. The name of Lord Cromer, for many years the British Commissioner in Egypt, will always be associated with the good government and the expansion of the country.

288. **Newfoundland.**—This, the oldest British dominion, discovered by Cabot in 1497, was long regarded as of importance only as a fishing station, its cod fisheries being the finest in the world. During the past twenty years the island has been carefully explored, and rich mineral deposits have been found. There are also vast areas of forest, with valleys well suited for raising hardy grains and vegetables. The French Shore difficulty was long a serious one. By the treaty of Utrecht, 1713, certain rights were granted to French fishermen. These "rights" were for years in dispute, the French claiming the exclusive right to fish along the coast from Cape Ray to Cape St. John's. Britain never admitted this exclusive right, and claimed that the French attempts to prevent British stations along the coast for mining and other purposes was outside their treaty rights.

By the Anglo-French Convention of 1904 the whole matter was amicably settled. France renounced her claim to exclusive right, but kept for her subjects, on a footing of equality with British subjects, the right to fish along the disputed coast during the fishing season. The French were granted the privilege of securing bait from Newfoundland. Compensation was to be given those French who were established upon the shore and who by the treaty were to be removed.

Newfoundland, including Labrador, enjoys self-government. The population is about two hundred and fifty thousand.

289. **The colonies.**—The remaining British possessions are spread all over the world and are largely made up of islands. Some are valuable only for their commerce, others for their importance in war. Gibraltar commands the entrance to the Mediterranean, and is the strongest fortress in the world. It has a permanent garrison of four thousand men. Malta is a naval and coaling-station, and, being on the route to India, is of first importance. Its garrison is seven thousand strong. Hong Kong, the Gibraltar of the East, is the great British centre of Chinese trade, and has a garrison of four thousand five hundred men. The Bermudas, Jamaica, Ceylon, Singapore, Southern Nigeria, and Sierra Leone, all have Imperial garrisons. Aden is a coaling-station for the British fleet and is strongly fortified. Perim is a coaling-station for naval vessels.

290. **The British navy.**—"On the British navy, under the good providence of God, the wealth, safety, and strength of the kingdom chiefly depend." True as this was when spoken three centuries ago by Sir Walter Raleigh, it is more emphatically true to-day. Then the inhabitants of the British Isles numbered less than six millions, and raised their own food; to-day they number forty-two millions, and would starve in a very short time if they were unable to obtain their supplies from abroad. The people of Great Britain must import the greater part of their food, and pay for it with manufactured goods sent to every corner of the earth. To protect the ships carrying her manufactures and returning with food supplies and raw materials such as cotton, wool, silk, lumber, hides, etc., a powerful navy is an

absolute necessity. Britain's navy was not created to enlarge the Empire or to overcome other nations, but to preserve British liberty and to protect British commerce.

The affairs of the navy are administered by an Admiralty Board of six members, presided over by the First Lord of the Admiralty, who is always a member of the Cabinet. Of the other members several are expert naval officers of high rank and long experience. One gives his attention wholly to planning and designing the best type of warships; another to manning them; another to keeping them in fighting order; another to transport and contracts; and yet another to coaling facilities. When it is decided to build new ships, they are built either in the government dockyards or by private contract, but in all cases under the direct supervision of Admiralty officers.

Many types of ships are built, but the chief are battleships, intended for attack; armoured cruisers, smaller ships with high speed, designed to protect commerce and for rapid movements; torpedo boats, small crafts with enormous speed, intended to launch torpedoes against the ships of the enemy; and submarines, for operations under water. The annual expenditure on the navy is about £35,000,000. In addition, in time of war, the government has the power to call into service scores of great ocean steamers now engaged in carrying passengers and freight. Many of these large vessels have guns lying ready at the naval arsenal at Woolwich, and also ready-prepared sheet armour that can be fitted on at short notice. The navy in 1910 was manned by one hundred and thirty-eight thousand men.

British naval stations, fully provided with coal and other supplies, are scattered all over the world, so that the naval vessels may move rapidly and without delay in any direction they may be sent.

291. **The British army.**—The affairs of the British army are administered by an Army Council, which consists of the Secretary of State for War and six other members, each of whom has charge of a particular department of military service. Great Britain, unlike most of the great continental nations, does not maintain a large standing army. In 1910

the regular army, not including troops serving in India, consisted of one hundred and eighty-two thousand men of all ranks, stationed in the British Isles and in the various British possessions throughout the world. In addition there was an army reserve of one hundred and thirty-four thousand men and two hundred and ten thousand territorials, or volunteers. The service is purely voluntary, no compulsion being used to make men enlist in the service. In time of war Great Britain has to depend almost entirely on the patriotism of her people both at home and in the distant parts of the Empire. To this patriotic feeling she has not yet appealed in vain, nor is it possible to think that the appeal will ever go unanswered.

CHAPTER X

THE IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT

292. **The sovereign.**—The British Parliament is made up of the sovereign and the Three Estates of the Realm; the Lords Spiritual, the Lords Temporal, and the Commons.

The sovereign has the authority to prorogue or dissolve Parliament, to sign or to veto bills passed by Parliament, to create peers, to pardon criminals, to declare war, to make peace, to appoint ambassadors to foreign courts, and to choose the bishops and archbishops of the established church in England. But it is now a fixed principle of British rule that the king shall do none of these things except on the advice of his Cabinet, expressed through the prime minister. The prime minister must take full responsibility for every official act of the sovereign; if he is not prepared to do so, he must resign and give place to some one who will assume such responsibility.

Although the king's prerogative is limited in this way by his Cabinet, yet his influence must always carry great weight. It has been said that a British sovereign has three rights: the right to be consulted, the right to encourage, and the right to warn. With these rights, it may easily be seen that a sovereign who has wise plans for the government of his people will have many opportunities to secure their adoption; while a sovereign whose plans are of doubtful wisdom will be held in check by experienced advisers responsible to Parliament.

293. **The House of Lords.**—The House of Lords is composed of two estates, the *Lords Spiritual* and the *Lords Temporal.* The Lords Spiritual consist of the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, together with twenty-four bishops of the established church in England. The Temporal Peers may be divided into two groups made up of those whose right to sit in the House of Lords is *limited* and those whose

right is *hereditary*. By the Act of Union between England and Scotland, it was provided that the House of Lords should contain sixteen Scottish peers. These are elected for each Parliament by the whole body of Scottish peers meeting in convocation. It thus happens that a Scottish peer may sit in the House of Lords during one Parliament and may lose that privilege during the next. By the Act of Union between Great Britain and Ireland, it was agreed that Ireland should be represented in the House of Lords by four spiritual and twenty-eight temporal peers, each elected for life. When, however, the Irish church was disestablished, the four spiritual peers ceased to sit in the House of Lords. Those so elected are called *Irish Representative Peers*. When one of this number dies, his successor is elected from the remaining Irish peers by a system of balloting which does not require a general convocation. Both Irish and Scottish peers, who are not already members of the House of Lords, are eligible for election to the House of Commons. No additional Scottish

THE IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS AT WESTMINSTER peers have been created since 1707, but the present law is so arranged that the Irish peerages may never fall below one hundred. The House of Lords also contains a few life peers, mostly in the persons of eminent judges, who, for various reasons, do not wish to have an hereditary peerage. There may not, however, be more than four such peers at any one time.

Peerages of the United Kingdom are hereditary, that is, the title descends to the direct male heir, whose right to a seat in the Lords is absolute. Many of the Irish and Scottish peers are also peers of the United Kingdom, and sit in the House of Lords by right of this latter peerage. The House of Lords, at the beginning of 1910, consisted of 3 royal dukes, 2 archbishops, 24 bishops, 22 dukes, 23 marquises, 124 earls, 40 viscounts, 334 barons, 16 Scottish peers, and 28 Irish peers. This number, however, is constantly changing, as new peers are from time to time created, and occasionally a peerage lapses on account of the failure of direct heirs.

The House of Lords may proceed with business if three peers are present, but a vote cannot be taken unless thirty are in the House. The Lords may propose any bills except such as involve taxation and the expenditure of money. They may, if they so decide, reject bills passed by the House of Commons. At present, however, the Lords would scarcely venture to threw out for the second time an important bill upon which the people had spoken clearly at a general election.

294. **The House of Commons.**—In the time of Queen Elizabeth the Commons consisted of 462 members. At the time of the first Reform Bill the number was 658. The present Commons contains 670 members, made up as follows: 465 from England, 30 from Wales, 72 from Scotland, and 103 from Ireland. For the purpose of the election of members of the House of Commons the United Kingdom is divided into electoral districts, so that all the electors may be represented in the fairest manner possible. Members of the House of Commons do not receive any pay for their services.

In both Lords and Commons bills must be read and voted upon three times before they are finally passed. The first reading is commonly without discussion, the second reading involves debate and perhaps amendments, while the third reading is a final adoption or rejection of the bill as amended. All bills involving taxation and the expenditure of money must originate and must receive their final form in the House of Commons.

The Commons *adjourn* from day to day, or perhaps for a whole month. Parliament is *prorogued* by the king when the business of the session is finished. After the king *dissolves* Parliament, a general election must take place before another Parliament can meet.

295. **Cabinet government.**—It has already been explained how the few trusted advisers of the kings obtained the name of *Cabinet.* It has also been pointed out that after the accession of the House of Hanover, the kings took little part in actual government. This, of course, still further increased the importance of the king's Cabinet; in fact, made it the real ruler of the kingdom.

It is quite true that George III tried to assert the same control over his ministers as was exercised by the kings of England before the eighteenth century. It is also true that he was largely successful, but he exercised his control by choosing only such ministers as would do his bidding. He did not interfere directly with Cabinet meetings, nor make any changes in the powers of Cabinet ministers.

After the Reform Bill of 1832, Cabinet government assumed its modern form. From that time it may truly be said to be a form of government directly responsible to the people. It is, at the present time, impossible that any party can carry on the government of the country unless the Cabinet contains the men in whom a majority of the electors have confidence.

The moment the Cabinet loses the confidence of the House of Commons, it is presumed to have lost the confidence of the people, and the prime minister must at once hand his resignation to the sovereign. It is the duty of the retiring prime minister to advise the sovereign as to his successor. The sovereign, of course, may either accept or reject this advice, and it is his undoubted right to call upon any person he may choose to undertake the formation of a government. In actual practice, however, his choice is limited to the leader of the party which has the confidence of the majority in the House of Commons, or which, in all probability, will have control after the general election. As soon as the new prime minister accepts the responsibility of forming a Cabinet, he proceeds to choose, either from the House of Lords or the House of Commons, or from both, the men whom he wishes to associate with himself in the government of the country. The names, when decided upon, are submitted to the sovereign, and, if approved by him, the men take the oath of office and assume control of their various departments. As a general rule, each member of the Cabinet presides over an important department of the public service, although this is not necessarily the case. Neither does it follow that because the head of a certain department is a member of the Cabinet, his successor will necessarily also be a member of the Cabinet. Members of the Cabinet who are members of the House of Commons, on taking office, must at once go back to their constituencies for re-election. If their course in accepting an office to which a salary is attached is approved by the electors, they will be returned; if not, they will be defeated and thus compelled to resign.

As the members of the Cabinet give their whole time to their official duties, they are paid liberal salaries. Each Cabinet minister is responsible for his own department; but any matter of general importance, such as taxation or foreign relations, is discussed and decided upon by the Cabinet as a whole. After the Cabinet has once agreed upon a certain course of action, each Cabinet minister is bound to give it his loyal support, and if any minister has any serious disagreement with his colleagues, he is in duty bound to resign. The Cabinet must be a unit upon every question of importance.

The prime minister and his Cabinet really govern the country. They decide upon what policy shall be followed, whether at home or abroad; they advise and are responsible for every official act of the sovereign; they decide upon and arrange for all important legislation except private bills; they prepare and submit the supply bills; they administer every department of the government, and spend the money voted by Parliament. Although the people do not directly choose the members of the Cabinet, yet that body is so dependent upon a majority of the Commons that Cabinet government is truly government by the people. In no country in the world is it as certain as it is in Great Britain that the will of the people will at once take effect, and that the nation's wisest and most trustworthy men will be its rulers.

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